THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

FEBRUARY, 1803.

ART. I.—*A Journal of the Forces which sailed from the Downs, in April* 1800, *on a secret Expedition under the Command of Lieutenant-General Pigot, till their Arrival in Minorca; and continued through all the subsequent Transactions of the Army under the Command of the Right Honorable General Sir Ralph Abercromby, K. B. in the Mediterranean and Egypt; and the latter Operations under the Command of Lieutenant-General Lord Hutchinson, K. B. to the Surrender of Alexandria: with a particular Account of Malta, during the Time it was subject to the British Government. By Æneas Anderson, Lieut.* 40*th Reg. Illustrated by Engravings.* 4*to.* 2*l.* 2*s. Boards.* Debrett. 1802.

THE work of Mr. Anderson pretends to little more than the merit of a journal; and, even as a journal, it is dry and uninteresting. What relates to Malta is indeed a little relieved above the general dulness; but, in literary composition, Malta is classic ground; and the narrative of its siege, in Watson's History of Philip the Second, is in a strain at once so interesting and elegant—a strain that so completely seises, and at the same time engrosses, the attention; that elevates the knights so far above the common race of mortals, by a brilliant display of actions beyond the common powers of man—that, in Malta, we are accustomed to look for every thing heroic and romantic. If such splendid achievements have not decorated the late war, this, it may be said, is not the fault of the author. We will admit, if he please, that it is his misfortune; but we must still feel the contrast. Whence Dr. Watson copied the narrative, we have not been fortunate enough to discover. We believe it, however, to be copied, as it is a 'strain of higher mood' than his history, and requires no further elevation to be truly epic.

The earlier parts of the volume are, as we have said, uninteresting. The threat against Cadiz has always appeared to us a singular and unaccountable action: we fear it may

be styled, in every view, a disgraceful exploit. To attack a city struggling under the ravages of a most fatal pestilence, is at least ungenerous; and if, as the commanders remark, the object were limited to the shipping, why was the attempt abandoned? Was it because the forts were too strong to be subdued by arms, and the moment of sickness and despondency was chosen to intimidate?—The authors of the expedition will blush to make such a humiliating confession; yet, to desist from the object on receiving a resolute answer to the bravading summons, appears to sanction the suspicion. The whole may be in time explained; and we hope the character of the nation will not suffer in the explanation. It is the attempt, and not its relinquishment, that requires an apology. Mr. Anderson has added nothing to what we already knew; but we shall select the Spanish commander's truly heroic answer to the summons he received, which we suppose has not yet been published.

'English admiral—When the cruel scourge which carries off, in this city and its environs, thousands of victims, and which seems as if it would not suspend its ravages until it has cut off all those who have yet escaped it, is so unhappily calculated to excite compassion, I see with surprise that the squadron under the command of your excellency, is come to add to the consternation of the people. I have too good an opinion of the humanity of the English people, and of yours in particular, to believe that you would endeavour to render our situation more deplorable. Yet if, in consequence of the orders which his excellency has received, he consents to draw upon himself the execration of all people, to cover himself with opprobrium in the eyes of the whole universe, by oppressing the unfortunate, and attacking him whom he thinks to be without defence; I declare to him, that the garrison under my command, accustomed to look at death with a serene brow, as well as to brave greater perils than all the perils of war, will know how to make a resistance, which shall only terminate with the entire annihilation of their enemies. I hope that the reply of your excellency will inform me, whether I am to console the miserable inhabitant, or rouse him to vengeance and anger. God protect your excellency!

'*Cadiz, Oct.* 5. THOMAS DE MORLA.

'Hitherto the ships employed in the blockade had not prevented the fishermen from exercising their innocent industry. It must cause astonishment that your excellency should deprive us of this feeble relief.' P. 81.

Every thing was ready, and the troops embarked. From every circumstance, we have little doubt of their success; but it would have been a success we should have greatly regretted; nor do we know the bosom that would not have joined in lamenting it.

The account of Malta and its various and invincible

fortresses is very minute, and at times interesting. Whose it may eventually become, we know not; but we trust that it will never be commanded either by French troops, or by any under their influence. Malta is undoubtedly the key of Egypt; and its conquest was the first step in a train of incalculable events, planned by Leibnitz, a subject of the elector of Hanover, with a view to the attainment of the commerce of India—though at that time the attempt was not peculiarly inimical to this country. In the present instance, it was, as we have before observed, obtained by treachery—an opinion in which Mr. Anderson fully agrees:—it is equally clear that the knights of St. John are no longer able to defend it; nor would it be prudent to trust those who have once been corrupted. British soldiers, beloved as they evidently are by the Maltese, are the only guarantees who should be relied on; and we lament the obstacle that accrues from the treaty of Amiens.

The description of streets, castles, and churches, will not admit of abridgement: it is, however, minute and entertaining. The following anecdote is of a piece with other records of French enormities, and cannot be made too public. It must be remembered that we mean not to accuse the nation, who, we know, detest such transactions as well as ourselves, but the army, thus wantoning in its ravages, and revolting, at the same time, and in an equal degree, humanity, justice, and religion.

'Citta Vecchia, which, as has been already mentioned, is situated in the centre of the island, was its ancient metropolis. It is the seat of a bishop, and possesses some remarkable buildings, among which are the Palazzo Magistrale, and the cathedral.

'In a vault beneath the church are now seen the mouldering forms of several monks, who, till the arrival of the French, were the officiating priesthood. Their brief, extraordinary, and lamentable history is as follows:

'Soon after Bonaparte left this island to conduct his expedition to Egypt, a French garrison was marched into Citta Vecchia, whose first object was, as usual, to pillage the public buildings, and plunder the inhabitants; and when they found resistance, massacre and bloodshed accompanied their rapine. When, therefore, they began to despoil this venerable edifice, the monks fled for safety into the adjoining catacombs, and being lost in their subterranean mazes, were starved to death: nor were they found, till after the enraged peasantry had risen to revenge their wrongs; when, after a plentiful massacre of the French, they drove the rest to the shelter of La Valetta.

'The inhabitants of Citta Vecchia, to perpetuate the hatred of this act of sacrilege, as well as of the people who practised it, have placed the bodies of these pious victims in a vault beneath the church, where they appear in the dress of their order, and in the attitudes in which they were found dead in the catacombs.

'The Maltese manifested the first disposition to revolt, at the moment when the French were in the act of pillaging this church.—A garrison, consisting of about an hundred men, was attacked, and the greater part of them destroyed. The commandant, also, was thrown from the balcony of the house in which he resided. The French, alarmed at this spirited act of resentment, immediately withdrew their men from the different parts of the country, and retired within the walls of La Valetta. The design of an insurrection to take place in that city had been formed; but such precautions were employed by the French as to prevent it from being carried into execution.' P. 149.

Mr. Anderson might have added, with advantage, some observations from Sonnini, and other travelers. He *has* added some extensive remarks on the natural history of the island, from Dolomieu. We recollect having seen them, but are not able to determine in what work. We wish to recover it, as some parts want an explanation. It would have greatly elucidated the subject, even to have premised that Malta, in the direction of its length, is from north-west to south-east, and that Gozzo, with the narrower part of the island, is on the north-west:—it lies between Sicily and Cape Bon. Of the former, the projecting wedge-like promontory is towards the west; and, on the other hand, the Cape trends to the north and the west.

Malta is a calcareous rock; but the industry of the inhabitants has given it as much fertility as a calcareous rock can admit; and artificial soil is even imported from Sicily. The population is said to exceed 90,000 souls, and the territorial revenues 34,000*l.* sterling.

'The thermometer of Réaumur is generally during the summer in Malta, below 25, and very seldom above 28. In winter it is very rarely below the eighth degree from the freezing point.

'The time when the heat or cold is most particularly felt, is not when the thermometer marks either of the extreme points of our temperature: there is almost a continual contrast between our sensations, and the instruments which measure the true temperature of the air, between the heat which is felt, and that which is real.

'The directions of the winds, and their variations, produce an instantaneous change from hot to cold, and the reverse: the wind from the north or north-west always occasions cold, and that from the south produces heat.

'The north-west wind gives the greatest degree of clearness to the air; that from the north-east renders it less clear, and that clearness considerably declines when it changes to the south-east or south; but increases in a small degree at the south-west, which is generally the time when the sea is in the most active state of agitation.

'The winds from the north-west are rendered salubrious by the great extent of sea which they traverse: those from the north would undergo an alteration in Italy and Sicily, if the strong vegetation of those fine countries did not tend to purify the atmosphere.

'The winds from the south are rendered unwholesome, by passing over the sandy and burning continent of Africa, where there is little or no vegetation; or the heat is so excessive, that every thing capable of rarefaction on the ground, forms exhalations that impregnate the atmosphere: they are not purified in their passage over the sea, from the narrow state of the channel; and the water being under the shelter of the land, has not sufficient agitation to absorb, by its motion, the mephitical miasma which the air contains. The cold, which is sometimes extremely sharp during the winter, is occasioned by the very clear air from the north. During the summer, when the wind is at south-west, the alteration in the usual clearness of the air is such, that if it were to change a few degrees more, it would be impossible to respire; and a dense atmosphere, formed by insensible perspiration, would occasion suffocation.

'The winds from the south do not continue for more than two or three days at a time, when they are succeeded by calms, during which the heat is very great, but less oppressive and suffocating, although the thermometer at that time often indicates a real heat much more considerable. The air is then more salubrious, and breezes from the sea, both by day and night, refresh the atmosphere, bringing with them a pure air from the surface of the water, and raising on it a gentle motion. In the morning there are breezes which blow off the land, which, though they may be less pure, are agreeably refreshing.

'When the wind changes from south to north, a lightness and ease of respiration is experienced which is altogether astonishing. It is a certain fact, that the air becomes from twenty to twenty-five degrees purer in an instant, and often more, although the thermometer does not experience the least alteration.' P. 160.

We scarcely know what is meant by 'purer' It cannot be from any eudiometrical experiment, for no such difference exists in any comparative situations or times.

The high grounds of Malta are not in the direction of its length, but on the side towards Africa; *viz.* on the south and south-east. The least uneven part of the island is at its greatest breadth, at the east of La Valetta; and the direction of the valleys is of course from the higher to the lower grounds. It is these valleys which constitute the harbours of Malta; and the depth of water, at different parts of the north-eastern coast, is occasioned by the deep channels formed by the rain from the higher grounds.

'The land of Gozo is much higher than that of Malta, and the coasts are defended by perpendicular rocks of a frightful appearance; the loftiest of which are towards the south and west. Those which guard the parts of Malta, opposite to Gozo and Comino, correspond with the rocks of those islands. Some vallies which are in the same direction with those of Malta, do not form ports to this island on account of the high land that surrounds them. Its surface is less uneven than that of Malta, and consequently better adapted for cultivation: it appears, indeed, that the upper bed was originally, in a great de-

gree, horizontal; but in both islands the rock is of the same nature. In each of them there are hills, either insulated or connected with others, whose summits are remarkably flat and level; and it is very perceptible that these summits formed a part of the original surface, as they are covered with stones much harder, more heavy, and of a closer grain than the rest. The under-beds are of different consistencies, and more or less subject to decay, according to their exposure to the air. Some of these beds are composed of a ferruginous sand, feebly cemented with a chalky glutinous substance. On the opposite sides of the steep rocks of Malta, and in the hollow spaces which separate the hills in Gozo, there are some little hillocks, of a greyish clay, which does not appear to be natural to the places where it is found; and muſt have accumulated after the excavation of the vallies. The rains, to which these hillocks offer but a weak resistance, have moulder-ed and formed them into the figures they possess.

'Hence it becomes a curious question respecting the origin of the clay found in Malta and Gozo; how it can have surmounted the pre-cipices of the last island, if it did not previously form a part of some elevated ground, from whence it must have descended. Conjecture may also be awakened respecting the red clay, a sort of virgin earth, which fills the perpendicular clefts of the rocks. The waters which have hollowed out the vallies, must have flowed in great abundance, having had the force to make such an impression on the rock, which, though not of the hardest nature, must nevertheless have offered a considerable resistance. The island, in its present extent, can never have produced such torrents, when the heaviest rains in winter form nothing more than small momentary rivulets in the bottoms of the vallies: nor can the sharp rocky precipices have been naturally formed by a mass accumulated from the successive deposits of the sea. There is every reason to believe that the island of Malta must have been part of a mountain, and that the rocky precipices which bound it to the south, east and west, could not have been formed but by the sinking and destruction of all the substances which were attached to them, as the water beneath is of a profound depth.

'All round the coasts of the three islands are evident marks of vio-lence; and the rocks, at some distance from the coast, are the frag-ments of the part which has been deſtroyed. In one word, the form of these islands, all the local circumſtances, and a number of particu-lar phenomena, prove that a great extent of land must have existed towards the south and west; and that the destruction of the part re-moved has been effected by a convulsion contrary to the common order of things. It appears that this destructive power must have proceeded from the west, and that it has acted most forcibly against the part at-tached to Gozo.' P. 167.

This is the language of observation, not of system; and we select it, for the purpose of adding, that it confirms what we have frequently remarked, that the current of the ocean is from the south and towards the west. In the Mediter-ranean, it must be of course from the west; and Malta is necessarily found separated from the continent of Africa,

perhaps also from Sicily, and, eventually, from Italy. This indeed is the system of our author, or, if we recollect rightly, of Dolomieu.

The Maltese are lively, active, and industrious: their language is a mixture of Arabic and Italian; but Vassari contends that they have a language of their own, peculiarly animated and expressive: it is, apparently, allied to the Phœnician. Many curious particulars of the Maltese œconomy and manners are added.

The fleet proceeded to Marmorice, on the coast of Caraminia, to wait for the horses and gun-boats to be furnished by the Turks. They were in part disappointed; but, with the best assistance they could obtain, they advanced to the coast of Egypt. The general orders form an admirable copy for future officers, dictated by the most consummate judgement and prudence, and with a foresight almost unexampled.

The campaign in Egypt is next detailed, from some reports of officers communicated to Mr. Anderson. On the whole, the account is clear and correct; but we have already enlarged sufficiently on the subject; and the little variations which we remark, are too trifling to be the object of animadversion. Even were they more important, as no authority is affixed, we could not with propriety insist on the contradictions they contain. Otherwise, we might perhaps have pointed them out for future elucidation.

The remainder of the volume is not very interesting. It fills the bulk, and perhaps gratifies a minute curiosity, with an account of the funeral of general Abercromby, the arrival of general Fox, and the departure of general Pigot. What yet ensues is of more importance; *viz.* the feelings and the representations of the Maltese with respect to the restoration of the island to the order, and the guarantee of Russia. Of the order, they say, with truth, that, the revenues of the knights being lost, they have no power of defending the island; that Maltese troops will be no longer trusted; and that the garrison, if the island be surrendered, will always be in the pay of France. The following observations merit particular attention:

'They know that Russia is at this moment eager to see the order, or what is equivalent, France, hold Malta, (the intercepted letters prove this;) that Russia, however her projects against Turkey may lie dormant during one reign, will ever be revived; and that whoever has Malta has a sure means of uniting with Russia; and that if France will give up the Turks, she may rely on the co-operation of Russia to oppose the British having any power in the Mediterranean.

'They know that Russia, united with France, may exclusively en-

joy all the commerce of the Levant; that France may be supplied with naval stores from the Black Sea in all security; that a Russian army may march in a few days from their settlements in the south of the Caspian, to the dominions of Zaman Sha, and put into effect the threats of the late empress Catharine, to drive us out of India.

'In short, as long as they are persuaded that Malta is the key of India, and the link that will unite Russia and France, that will shut us out of the Mediterranean, and prevent us for ever from counteracting the influence of France in Italy; that will create a naval power, which may one day appear, and bid us defiance in the Atlantic.

'As long as Great Britain possesses Malta, though every surrounding nation be our enemies, she will be mistress of the Mediterranean.

'With respect to England, they are not ignorant of the importance of this island as a place of commerce; that this would be the great market for British manufacture, and Italian, Turkish, and Russian products; that in this arsenal every convenience for building, fitting out, or laying up a fleet, is to be found; that this might be the granary of Europe; that corn, to any amount, might be collected here, and stored up, from the Black Sea, from Egypt, and from every port where it were cheap, to supply every country where it may be wanted, and Great Britain itself in time of scarcity.' P. 507.

These views are of the highest importance; and we have little doubt that they have already obtained the attention of administration. We ought not to engage in the discussion; but may express our warmest hopes, that the island will not be unconditionally restored.

The work is handsomely printed, and adorned with numerous plates. The most important are, the plan of the chief cities of Malta, and of the bay of Marmorice. We wish the writer had subjoined a map of the island, as, situated between Europe and Africa, it is seldom noticed in common maps, but as an appendage on the north or south, meriting little attention. Various views are annexed, of Cadiz, and of different fortresses of Malta. We have, however, seen nothing in a style so truly incorrect as these drawings, or so imperfect as these representations. In pity, we shall add no more.

ART. II.—*Public Characters of* 1799-1800. *To be continued annually.* 8*vo.* 10*s.* 6*d. Boards.* Phillips.

TO delineate the characters of persons yet alive, in public or respectable stations, is a work of no common difficulty, but of considerable interest. We eagerly catch at every anecdote, which friendship may communicate, or prying curiosity elicit; and—such is the human mind—we perhaps wish to bring exalted characters nearer to our own level, by the discovery of little imperfections. The im-

propriety, however, as well as the danger, of these latter communications, is sufficiently obvious; and the path lies, as it ought to do, 'per ignes suppositos cineri doloso.' The old adage is reversed in this publication, and 'de *viventibus* nil nisi bonum,' is the motto. The authors may indeed choose their own subjects: friendship is warmly alive, to tincture with favourable colours; and the truth, when it must be told, may be occasionally softened. A combination of varnished pictures will, however, be the result; and such are, in general, the portraits before us.

The signatures, added to each life, display the semblance, perhaps the existence, of different authors, and the narrative supports the distinction of pens: yet the style is nearly the same; and, as in one of the Spectator's visions, we think we perceive some *prudent* personage (in the Spectator, it is TIME) examining each portrait, softening each harsher trait, and expunging each petty imperfection. This personage we behold ('in our mind's-eye, Horatio') peculiarly attentive to political characters, and those who have taken a distinguished part in *some* disputed questions. He has heightened the portrait of the democrat, though somewhat at the expense of the likeness. He has softened the severity of the modern reformer, whose rugged overhanging eye-brows remind us of Calvin, and who has at times only wanted power to be also a persecutor of another Servetus. He has corrected the sullen scowl of the disappointed patriot who aimed at confusion, that, in a new order of things, he too might have a chance of triumph. Fancy, indeed, may have misled us; yet thus general appears to us the corrective. But though the same 'prudent' personage has not been wholly idle while retracing other lives, we do not perceive an equal anxiety to finish and render the portrait pleasing. In truth, we suspect that history will not always look to these volumes as authority, even *with* the assistance of 'TIME.'

We reviewed the first volume of the work in our own 24th volume, and the second edition in vol. 26th, New Arr. We then spoke of the attempt with hesitation and doubt. In many respects, delicacy is still infringed upon; for few are willing to be forcibly dragged into open day; and, though foibles be not blazoned, and errors be concealed, the exhibition is still public. Laberius is forced on the stage, as in the time of Julius Cæsar; and he who went from home a Roman knight, returns a public performer.

The interest, however, which the world feels for the minuter history of eminent men, has called for repeated successive volumes. The lives are undoubtedly executed with unequal abilities and accuracy; but they are often enter-

taining; nor indeed can any author, we think, be offended, unless by a general objection of being thus introduced. We shall, in the present article, again turn over the pages, and point out a few excellencies and exceptions.

In the preface, the editors claim, very pointedly, the merit of communications from different authors distinguished by initials; and 'it is presumed that no sentiment has place in this volume, which can give a moment's pain to any of the personages whose memoirs are inserted.'

'It results, however, as a consequence of this necessary arrangement, that the work contains much variation of style, and considerable inequality of literary merit. Thus, while some articles only recommend themselves as containing a simple statement of facts, others, communicated by gentlemen of distinguished literary attainments, abound in moral and critical observations, and combine, with unquestionable authenticity, the graces of elegant composition.

'It is presumed that no sentiment has place in this volume which can give a moment's pain to any of the personages whose memoirs are inserted. Corrections of any such passages, should they unfortunately exist, and valuable and authentic communications or additions to any of the articles, will henceforward be affixed to each subsequent volume in the form of an appendix.' P. iii.

The memoirs are those of

'Earl of St Vincent—Mr. Sheridan—Hon. Thomas Erskine—Rev. Dr. Parr—Dr. Charles Hutton—Lord Hawkesbury—Dean Milner—Bishop of Meath—Rev. William Farish—Sir Francis Bourgeois—Duke of Richmond—Mrs. Abington—Mr. Saurin—Dr. Samuel Arnold—Lord Bridport—Marquis of Lansdown—Sir John Parnell—Mr. Southey—Doctor Duigenan—Mr. George Ponsonby—Mr. Granville Sharp—Lord Pelham—Duke of Grafton—Mr. secretary Cooke—Major Cartwright—Duke of Leinster—Mrs. Inchbald—Earl Fitzwilliam—Mr. William Godwin—Rev. Mr. Graves—Mr. Shield—Sir George Yonge—Doctor Garnet—Lord Dillon—Lord Castlerea—Dr. Adam Fergusson—Mr. William Hayley—Countess of Derby—Mr. Pratt—Dr. Harrington—Duchess of Gordon—Doctor Currie—Duke of Bedford—Mr. William Cowper—Miss Linwood—Lord Kenyon—Mr. Hastings.' P. iv.

The two first lives merit great commendation. That of lord St. Vincent is related with ability and judgement. It is of course panegyrical; but we know not that any thing can be detracted. If we hesitate, it relates to his evidence on admiral Keppel's trial, and we chiefly hesitate on the score of party. We well know that predilection will sometimes warp the judgement; and lord St. Vincent was *then* in opposition. Lord Keppel did every thing, perhaps, that naval tactics could at that time have performed; but were lord St. Vincent again to *review* that engagement, and recollect his own conduct, as well as that of lord Rodney, he might ask,

Why did lord Keppel bear down in line? Why did he not cut off a part? Why was the British fleet at last brought into action in a crippled state?—Had lord St. Vincent done so, he would have lost his most verdant laurel.

> 'Had he fought at Holmedon *thus*,
> He ne'er had triumphed over' the Spaniard.

At a period not very distant from that of the action, in reviewing a work on naval tactics *, and particularly remarking the success of Suffrein in the East Indies, we ventured an observation, that the old system must be abandoned if we would succeed. It *was* abandoned by lord Rodney off Grenada; by lord St. Vincent off the coast of Spain; by lord Duncan off Camperdown; and by lord Nelson in the Bay of Aboukir.

The life of Mr. Sheridan is written with singular ability. Words and sentiments may perhaps be objected to: but where is the author, who writes on such a subject, who could guard every avenue? and where is the critic, who can discover the fault, who could attain as much merit?—The life of Mr. Erskine, with similar minute exceptions, is entitled to equal commendation.

The life of Dr. Parr is written with a warmth of enthusiasm, which leads us to apprehend a little, perhaps venial, partiality. It is indeed truth in its fairest garb; and the minuter circumstances show, that, if any thing be concealed, it is not from ignorance: if a *perfectly* candid criticism of the doctor's works do not appear, it is not from incompetence.—Dr. Hut on's gradual progress is admirably described, and we think his life a truly valuable abstract of his labours—of the ladder by which he industriously climbed to eminence.—Of dean Milner, from the same cause, the life is peculiarly interesting. Our information does not enable us to determine the accuracy of the progressive steps, which, however, we have not the slightest reason to impeach. We were much pleased with the following observations.

> 'A short time after he became president of Queen's, he took out his doctor's degree, and was presented with the deanery of Carlisle. It is his custom to visit this place regularly every year, but he seldom resides there long. Hull, before the decease of his brother (for whom he entertained a high regard, but called, on account of his methodism, his *strange brother*), was the most favourite place of his residence. His lodgings were a complete workshop, filled with all kinds of carpenter's and turner's instruments. He was accustomed here to relax his mind daily from the fatigues of study, by some manual labour. His lathe and appendages for turning were extremely curious, and

* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. vol. 3, p. 276.

cost him no less than one hundred and forty guineas. He had also a very curious machine, partly of his own invention, which formed and polished at the same time, with the utmost possible exactness, watch-wheels of every description.

'A celebrated moralist of the present day maintains, that manual labour is one great source of happiness. It is evident that we cannot bear, without injury, for any long time, intense and uninterrupted thought; it is equally clear, that, when the mind, without any object of pursuit, is left to its own spontaneous sensibilities, it turns either to the future or the past; and, as we are either melancholy or gay, so is the prospect before us. This state, therefore, of sensibility, exercising the mind, not according to the real existence of things, but to their accidental impression, is seldom profitable; besides this, it can be no relief to a mind already wearied with deep thinking. Something is wanted for this purpose, which gently exercises the mental powers, on some corporeal movement. Manual labour, requiring just dexterity enough to abstract the mind from its accustomed operations, seems best to answer this end. Let it not, therefore, be a matter of surprise or ridicule, that a man of enlarged understanding, as in the present instance, should stoop for amusement to the drudgery of mechanical employment. It is not even enough to call uncle Toby's whims inoffensive, they were really useful; and our hobbies, whatever they be, are founded in nature, and indispensable to our happiness.' P. 144.

A work of this kind is chiefly calculated to bring forward concealed merits, sometimes concealed peculiarities. Of this nature is the life of Mr. Farish, a recluse collegian, whose knowledge of the mathematics is profound; and of mechanics, particularly the useful and practical parts, peculiarly extensive. The life of sir Francis Bourgeois, a landscape painter of singular merit, is of a similar nature.

It may be observed, that we pass over many memoirs, of which it must be understood that they merit no material praise or censure; or that our information is unable to detect what errors may exist. The same omissions will, for similar reasons, recur in the remainder of the article. In the life of the Irish barrister, Mr. Saurin, the union with England is entitled 'the surrender of the constitution and independence of his country.' On this occasion, we cannot omit one short observation. If Ireland be connected in the interest of a political and fœderal nature with this country, the union does not deserve this language: if it be wholly and distinctly an independent kingdom, it is allowable. But where is the English author who will admit the former? and where is the politician who will say that Ireland is as much attached to France and Spain as to England? The independence of Ireland is therefore an idle form of speech, except in the mouth of those who wish it to be wholly independent of this country. If it be regarded as an appendage

to it, and such it has been considered for a century and a half, a close and perfect union is preferable to either.—The lives of Dr. Arnold and Mr. Shield are confessedly communicated by Dr. Busby, and of course claim our approbation as authentic.

Of the memoir of lord Shelburne, we can speak highly as a varnished painting; but it is not a likeness. The colours are brilliant, and even glaring: the keeping scientifically managed, and the whole so successfully delusive, that, acquainted as we are with the subject, we could almost consider it as a true picture. One part of the character is, however, kept from our view; *viz.* the consummate art which has distinguished the marquis through life.—No: we mistake: it is not concealed, but expanded over the whole portrait.

Mr. Granville Sharp next claims our attention, as a well-written life of a most excellent man, whose active benevolence merits the highest commendation. In many parts of his conduct, we think, however, that he has mistaken his object. He examined others through the medium of his own feelings; and, as he discovered in his own bosom not an atom of selfishness, ingratitude, or inhumanity, he did not suspect it in others. It is not his fault that some of the worst consequences have resulted from several of his public attempts; nor can the lives lost by England and France in the West Indies, in consequence, not of the abolition of the slave-trade, but of the emancipation of the negroes, though a consequence of the benevolent system of Mr. Sharp and his coadjutors, be attributed to them more than the horrors of the French revolution to the first abettors of American independence. Yet each was the first act of the subsequent dire tragedies.—Major Cartwright, the next in our list, is a reformer of the same school, with intentions perhaps equally benevolent, and at times equally injudicious. We rest, however, with less confidence on this life, as it is so minute that it seems to come immediately or indirectly from the major himself. We perceive the 'front and rear' noticed by an acute observer on another occasion, as proofs of the major's pen. We behold *parts* of confidential letters, the substance of which is concealed, and are not told whence the selected passages are derived—'*Aut Erasmi, aut* . . . . . '

We were much pleased with the life of Mrs. Inchbald, and think it a very authentic and correct account. We hesitate a little respecting the cause of her leaving the Edinburgh stage, which is attributed to the ill usage of Mrs. Yates. We knew a little of that subject; but, at this distance, dare not trust our memory. We are glad to hear that we shall probably have the memoirs of her life from her

own pen.—Of lord Fitzwilliam, the account is apparently correct and satisfactory.

The varnished life of Mr. Godwin, on the other hand, merits the severest censure. Never were sounding words or polished sentences more improperly employed in gilding sophistry and principles highly dangerous in their consequences, and, in one respect, highly immoral—we mean the artful varnish and gross misconduct in the life of his wife. There are some passages which have greatly perplexed us. 'In the scheme of Calvin,' it is observed, 'there is much to attract a religious mind, having the intrepidity to pursue an argument through all its consequences.' We have not sufficiently studied Calvinism to understand this curious sentence. It is apparently designed only for the initiated. In another passage which struck us, we can more easily find our way. 'She (Mrs. Wollstonecraft) was one of those, that the powers of nature and the cultivation of society sometimes unite to form, for whom every sensible and polished mind almost loses its veneration in the excess of its love.' We can easily perceive that we may lose our veneration for such a character; but can scarcely see how it can be in any sense (except one) from excess of love.

We were highly pleased with a judicious and genuine tribute to the character of Mr. Graves, whom we have followed in his eventful literary life with singular pleasure, whose liveliness, good-nature, and urbanity, have cheered many a gloomy hour, and whom we rejoice to find still healthy and active. The life of sir George Yonge is dated from Devonshire, and seems to have been written by one who knows him well, and wishes to gild some errors, and to conceal many defects.—Of Dr. Garnet, the account is also favorable; but, whatever may have been his errors or defects, he no longer ranks among living authors; and his character may be better appreciated in another work.—Of Dr. Adam Fergusson, the life is written *con amore*, and with some of the venial exaggeration of friendship. We call that venial exaggeration, where there is much to praise with truth, and where the author only steps a little beyond the limits of propriety.

The character of Mr. Hayley seems judiciously discriminated. We shall select a short passage.

'Mr. Hayley seems to have taken Pope for his model, not with the design of emulating, but of approaching him in a nearer degree than any of his predecessors or contemporaries. Like that great master, he has been minute in his attention to cadences, pauses, and the charms of modulation. But his sentiments are too much expanded, when they ought to be condensed. His amplification is not without magnificence; but he amplifies when a judicious and striking

contraction is necessary. Not satisfied with presenting a combination of ideas, in one advantageous light, he goes on enlarging, until its original vigour is impaired, and the languor of the poet and that of the reader become reciprocal. Yet, even here, he has the merit of displaying elegance and grace in his excursions; but he is elegant without strength, and graceful without precision. Poetry too diffused, like empire too extended,

"Exchanges solid strength for feeble splendour."

'His imagery is judicious and sometimes lofty, but it wants those vivifying sparks of genius that brighten into a blaze of enthusiastic admiration for the poet. He is without vehemence and impetuosity, but he is also without inequality and roughness. The creative faculty is not to be traced in his works, but he has made his muse subservient to the noblest purposes; and the name of Hayley will be remembered with honour, while polite literature, morality, and taste shall continue to be cultivated, practised and admired.' P. 452.

Of Mr. Pratt, the panegyric is laboured, and, we think, overstrained. Nothing but excellence is to be found. Our opinion has been often different; but, if his 'life be distinguished by an uniform practice and support of the most amiable qualities,' if 'his disposition to benevolence keep pace with his beautiful descriptions of it, in a full tide of good offices to the unfortunate,' we will restrain every deduction from his merit as an author, and join in the praise of his kindness, his humanity, and his charity.

The life of Dr. Harrington is highly laboured, and of course a favourable representation. That of Dr. Currie, in a humbler line, appears to approach nearer to the truth.—Of the duke of Bedford, the account is flattering, and the subject of religion kept from our view. Some other errors are touched with too light a hand; but the most striking trait in the picture is his agricultural attempts.—Of Mr. Cowper, we can say little, and shall only transcribe one pleasing copy of verses not before published.

'The poplars are fell'd, and adieu to the shade,
And the whispering sound of the cool colonnade;
The winds play no longer, and sing in their leaves,
Nor the Ouse, on its surface, their image receives.

'Twelve years had elaps'd since I last took a view
Of my favourite field, and the place where they grew;
When, behold, on their sides, in the grass they were laid,
And I sate on the trees under which I had stray'd.

'The blackbird has sought out another retreat,
Where the hazels afford him a screen from the heat;
And the scene where his notes have oft charm'd me before,
Shall resound with his smooth-flowing ditty no more.

'My fugitive years are all hasting away,
And I must myself lie as lowly as they,
With a turf at my breast, and a stone at my head,
Ere another such grove rises up in its stead.

'The change both my heart and my fancy employs;
I reflect on the frailty of man and his joys;
Short liv'd as we are, yet our pleasures, we see,
Have a still shorter date and die sooner than we.' P. 541.

The life of lord Kenyon, we think just, and properly discriminated: that of Mr. Hastings—the last in the volume—is too short; but it is written with care and propriety, guarded seemingly with no common anxiety for approbation.

ART. III.—*The Trident; or, the National Policy of naval Celebration: describing a Hieronauticon, or naval Temple, with its Appendages; proposing a periodical Celebration of naval Games, and, on occasion of Victories of the first Magnitude, the granting of Triumphs: these Works and Institutions being intended to foster the rising Arts of Britain into a full Maturity, and a successful Rivalship with those of Rome and Greece; and to keep alive, and in full Lustre, to the latest Generations, the present heroic Spirit of the British Navy. By a private Gentleman.* 4to. 1*l.* 1*s. Boards.* Johnson. 1802.

PATRIOTISM and benevolence, unaccompanied by enthusiasm, we rarely encounter. An ardent ambition to extend the glory of their country—to stimulate valor, science, and art—to promote industry, and nourish genius—often actuates, and sometimes deludes, artists, *private gentlemen*, writers, and reviewers.

We applaud the *motives* which, in his title-page, this writer expresses. The profits of his work, and of an exhibition of drawings (of which some are already executed by the marine painter, Anderson—the architect, Gandy; and by the late Mr. Hamilton, and by Mr. Stothard, historical painters), are destined to increase the funds of the Marine Society. As the drawings are not before us, we shall leave the *artist* unalarmed by any remarks which might spontaneously have arisen; principally directing our views to the fabric of the *writer*, which we shall examine with the attention due to a national object.

Educated by the muses to admire—

'The princely dome, the column, and the arch,
The breathing marbles, and the sculptur'd gold;'

we lament that the public edifices of Britain should so imperfectly display the magnificence of an opulent and enlightened nation.

Among various designs lately submitted to public inspection, for commemorating the unrivaled achievements of our naval heroes, we have remarked none distinguished by grandeur of effect, or commendable for purity of taste.

A monumental structure worthy the fame of those deceased—to whom we owe an endless debt of gratitude—might afford ample scope for the talents of existing artists, and impress future ages with emulative veneration.

Accident, and the pleasure resulting from the exercise of invention, has given birth to the designs of the author of *The Trident*, who is no professional architect, whose reading in the science is confessedly limited, but whose eager spirit aspires to attain architectural novelty.

His preface enters abruptly into the subject of *isolated columns*. Arguments in favour of a variation from the ancients, by adopting *two socles* (plinths) under the pedestal, in order to afford a widely extended base, appear to us unnecessarily labored.

The most approved writers on architecture consider the pedestal itself as a *separate body*, 'having no more connexion with the order than as an attic, a basement, or any other part with which it may, on some occasions, be accompanied.' The fancy of this writer for his super-added *socle* may be indulged—'*quando egli è fatto con ragione e con proporzione all' altre parti.*'

Such a variance from the Greek style, in a work intended for duration, seems not unfavorable to stability, or to the general effect of the composition, if adequate skill be directed to the distribution of other principal and subordinate parts.

'*Non è vietato all' architetto partirsi alcuna volta dall' uso commune, perchè tal variazione sia* GRAZIOSA *et abbia del* NATURALE.'

The author now erects an isolated column (more than three hundred feet high) in the Greek style, on double socles. At the centre and angles of these socles, he places frustums (portions) of other vast columns, which are intended to 'become no insignificant *towers* or *temples*,' and to be furnished with altars and statues.

'Unassisted by drawings, and relying alone on our powers of imagination, we must give momentary stability to ideal

edifices; and, as we create, offer our remarks on these fancy-formed fabrics.

The preface is followed by a poetical *invocation* and *dedication*. The address to his majesty we select as a specimen:

> ' And Thou, who sitt'st on mighty Alfred's throne,
> And call'st him ancestor—O splendid claim!
> Whose naval forests cast so broad a shade
> Where Alfred's sacred acorns first were sown;
> Whose flag, with glory's golden beams, on fire,
> Bold Suffrein aw'd near Ceylon's spicy groves;
> Then blaz'd refulgent on Columbia's wave,
> When Gallic heroes, with De Grasse, their chief,
> Were captive led in happy Rodney's train,
> Rodney, by whom at once three hostile flags
> Were borne in triumph to proud Albion's shore!
> And still, with glory's flame more fervid glow'd,
> When vent'rous Brest, and Lagos' lofty towers,
> When sullen Camperdown and ancient Nile,
> Amaz'd, beheld thy thunderbolts of war,
> Howe, Jervis, Duncan, Nelson, strike the foe;
> To Thee, this work I dedicate; design'd
> To move the generous, the brave, the wise,
> And all whose bosoms burn with British fire,
> Thy navy's founder, and the first who tore
> From brow of Dane, the naval victor's crown,
> And placed it on his own, Alfred the Great
> To celebrate; and those heroic men,
> Who in his glorious nautic steps have trod:
> But Him, O high-enthroned prince, nor muse,
> Nor muse-inspired man, have need to urge
> Albion's Hieronauticon to rear,
> Him, in whose veins the blood of Alfred flows!' P. 2.

This ' volunteer architect ' is frequently ambitious, among other buildings, to ' *build the lofty rhyme.*' His attempt to improve the well-known strains of ' Rule, Britannia,' we shall appreciate in its place.

We quote the subjects proposed in the introduction.

> ' Alfred the founder of the British navy—a column of naval celebration the wish of the public—the wise policy of gratifying that wish—public works should produce moral effects—example of Greece—Pericles—Olympic games—their happy effects—wisdom of the early popes—Britain, by encouraging the arts, may rival antiquity—sagacity of Iphitus—his example worthy of imitation—monuments not effective without festivals—Bay of Biscay, St. Vincent, Camperdown, and the Nile—a partial adoption of the Grecian games has already benefited this country essentially—the wise policy of naval games and of triumphs—prudence of Solon and Lycurgus—West's panegyric on the Olympic games.' P. 5.

To accommodate with convenience the motley groups issuing from *twenty-two chapters*, alike prolific, our own edifice ought to be, beyond what we can allow it, enlarged. Yet our *curious* readers will be amused while we, with difficulty, attempt to explore this labyrinth of patriotism.

That a national monument, recording the prowess of our navy, should be consecrated to its *general* glory rather than to the events of a single war—that the charges of such an erection should be defrayed by the *public*, *not* by individual contributions—we think a proposal highly judicious.

The author is 'feelingly alive' to the interests of the fine arts, as this passage evinces:

'But the comprehensive mind will grasp another cause for executing the projected work in a manner the most grand. When Britain beholds her rival, with as much policy as pride, arraying herself in the rich spoils of ravaged Italy; and, by her inestimable gallery of the Tuilleries, and her fifteen other rich collections deposited in her departments, manifesting an ambition to render her whole territory a school of the fine arts, and contriving the most captivating allurements for drawing thither all the genius of Europe; Britain has indeed a cause for alarm. If therefore Britain find not the means to attach to her own soil her native genius; if she strike not out, on a scale worthy of herself, encouragement to her own artists, she must of necessity see them emigrate, to swell the triumphs of her more politic rival. If in our future rivalship with France—a rivalship that must henceforward call forth all our faculties—we mean not that she shall acquire the ascendant, we must recollect, that the first constituent in national greatness, is elevation of mind and dignity of soul; and that those sentiments are cultivated to the highest advantage, by constant addresses to that faculty within us, which is peculiarly conversant with those qualities that are the high ornaments of man. It is the imagination which lifts the man of genius above the man of ordinary standard; the hero above the mere man of courage; in short, it is imagination which, in an eminent degree, constitutes the difference between greatness and mediocrity in men and in nations. Here is the foundation in our nature, for the high importance, in a national view, of the fine arts. Had the small states of Greece been as destitute of a taste for the fine arts as the vast Persian empire, the laurels of Marathon had never encircled the brow of Miltiades! Even in a commercial view, it is our policy to cherish the arts with a warm and fostering hand, as hath been abundantly proved, by the rapid improvements in our pottery, and a great variety of our manufactures, since the establishment of the Royal Academy; improvements which gave them a decided preference in every foreign market.

'What the fine arts alone had long done for modern Rome in her state of degradation, is known to every traveler, and is full of admonition, even to statesmen whose minds soar not above political arithmetic. But when the degree in which the authority of ancient Rome was established over the minds of other nations, in consequence of

the magnificence she derived from the fine arts, is duly regarded by the philosophic statesman, he will be more inclined to build his fame on a patronage of art, under the peaceful olive, than on the doubtful recourse to arms, in any case not of imperious necessity.' P. 7.

The British *merchant* will scarcely admit that the force of imagination has so eminently contributed to national opulence: *he* will perhaps insist, not unreasonably, on the force of unremitted industry and accurate calculation.

To their *games* the author principally attributes the superiority of the Greek nations, in arms, arts, and literature; and hence presumes to recommend to *us* similar institutions.

Against the policy of this measure, we adduce a recent example:—that undiscriminating mania for antique usages, which accompanied the ferocious revolution of France, has terminated in an accumulation of incongruities, not less ridiculous to the eye of taste, than revolting to the feelings of humanity.

Difference of climate, religion, and government—unnumbered accidents, in the lapse of ages, perpetually arising to modify human nature—must occasion equivalent changes in those institutions which, at various periods, are best adapted to promote the greatest practicable felicity and splendor of nations.

In works of art, among other excellencies, although the Greeks and Romans assuredly offer us examples for emulation, a mixture of ancient and modern *costumi* is not less tasteless and absurd. Institutions accommodated to Athens are ridiculous in London:—'*Hic segetes, illic*,' &c.

'Racing institutions' *may* have improved the breed of British horses; but such accidental similarities neither authorise a general imitation of '*Olympic games*,' nor imply that our brave sailors would be more effectually educated by the parade of a Naumachia, than by the well-rewarded exertions of actual service. Royal approbation, thanks from an imperial parliament, a pension, a title, national monuments to deceased valour, and, above all, the gratitude of their countrymen, will be ever sufficient, we trust, to awaken the exertion and crown the toils of our naval defenders, without the mimic pageantry of obsolete festivals. Our marine dominion has been gradually extended by *other* aids. We disapprove this sentiment:

'After all that art and expence can effect, cold and lifeless must be that celebration of national conflicts, heroic deeds, and glorious victories, which hath not for its essence the assembling of a people, exciting their enthusiasm, rousing them to animated action, and to an expression of their common feeling, by the exertion of their united voice.' P. 14.

The 'vital part,' however, of the design, is the establishment of triennial naval games. The opinions which we have expressed must not disappoint our readers: they shall be rapidly exercised in the gymnasium, and enjoy a transient view of the games and triumphs. The principal buildings must be first examined.

Justice to the author obliges us to give an extensive introductory extract, which explains *his* ideas.

'With regard to the species most proper on the occasion, the obelisk, the pyramid, the pantheon, and the column, were severally considered. The first wants dignity; the second is deficient in taste and other requisites; the third, indeed, has dignity and taste, and withal grandeur and magnificence; but it is not sufficiently lofty, and the converging outlines of its dome are all softly-yielding curves, receding from every wind, as seeking tranquillity and repose; whereas the majestic column lifts to the very clouds his towering head, to hold sublime converse with the storm—nurse of naval hardihood! and to survey the islands, continents, and oceans around.

'To unite, therefore, the essential properties of these two species of edifice, with others which have not yet entered into the composition of any building, the author has adopted a form, which, in its successive terraces, has somewhat of the pyramidical principle of the temple of Belus at Babylon; while its apartments, within those terraces, give it all the advantages of a banqueting palace, a theatre, a temple, and a national gallery for statuary and painting.

'By thus combining the properties of the temple and the column, each part augments the grandeur of the other; by means of the terraces and the pedestal, the very base of the column is at an elevation of one hundred and eighty-eight feet from the ground; and then, by surmounting all below with a column correspondent to such a socle, a temple, far surpassing in magnitude the proudest works of antiquity, is produced; while, by means of the two terraces, forming a double socle of a very extended ground line, the column, high as it is raised, has not that unsupported, tottering appearance, which, to the eye of taste, is observable in all isolated columns which rest on a mere pedestal; for, when columns are diverted from their original office, of collectively supporting porticos, or other massive parts of buildings, which appear by their weight to pin them steadily to the ground, and are reared high into the air, it appears to the author that they require, in order to produce an idea of their stability, not only the additional substance given them by the ancient architects, but likewise an outspreading socle; which, as a part of the edifice, may furnish to the eye a base correspondent to the loftiness of the superstructure.

'From what has been said, it will appear that, to call the edifice we speak of, a naval pillar, or a column of naval celebration, would give of it but a very inadequate idea; and the author should not easily be reconciled to any denomination, that necessarily excluded the idea of its grand columnar feature. He has therefore ventured upon a new compound term, borrowed from the Greek, not only for the sake of the well-sounding of the word, but to avoid the coupling to-

gether of two parts of speech for a name to the building he has designed: he calls it the Hieronauticon; or naval temple.' P. 25.

The principle of our architect is to render every decoration appropriate to the intent of the edifice, 'NAUTICITY.'

'The only limits he knows to that attention, are those which should guard an architect from pedantry, or from sacrificing any legitimate beauty or perfection of general architecture.' P. 27.

After this declaration, we scarcely expected the invention of *nautic orders* of architecture. The alterations are principally in the capitals of the columns. On these innovations, we shall borrow the censures of the immortal Reynolds:

"The sound rules of the Grecian architecture are not to be lightly sacrificed. A *deviation* from them, or even an *addition* to them, is like a deviation or addition to or from the rules of other arts,—fit only for a GREAT MASTER, who is thoroughly conversant in the nature of man, as well as all combinations in his own art."

We will not determine that the architectural wing of this *great master* is unequal to a flight so daring, until we have criticised his drawings: yet, to alter a single member in an established order of architecture, *we* deem as hazardous an attempt, as to introduce new words into the languages of antiquity, or alter *their* construction.

A *naumachia*, with the appendages of cars, chariots, and barges, first appears:

'These barges and land carriages requiring, when not in use, a place of security, it is proposed that, at the landing place of the naumachia, where the procession by water is to terminate, and the ceremony by land is to commence, a suitable building for their reception shall be erected, one end of which should project into the water for receiving the barges; and the other end be on the dry land, for reception of the cars and the chariots. For this purpose, it is recommended to adopt the model of Inigo Jones's Tuscan temple, on the plan of which he built the church of Covent-garden in London. There is not only, in this design, the greatest simplicity and plainness, consistent with good taste; but the superior width of the central intercolumniation of the portico, gives it a complete adaptation to the intended purpose; the principal barge and the principal car occupying the central interval, and the inferior vehicles filling the smaller intervals at the sides.

'Suffice it to say, that, for our purpose, this temple must have a portico at each end; one pediment being adorned with a bas-relief of an antique galley, and the other of a triumphal car; but, correspondent with the Tuscan taste, we must here omit the fiery steeds, and every thing of decoration, contenting ourselves with the simplest forms of galleys and cars which antiquity can furnish.' P. 30.

This building is the *armieron*, '*the temple of the cars.*'

In the centre of a square inclosure of *sixty acres*, at a competent distance from the water-side, stands the HIERONAUTICON. The inclosure itself forms the *gymnasium*: the entrances are four, one in the midst of each side.

'In the design that has been sketched out for these approach gates, there are a few niches, which, perhaps, might be well appropriated to the statues of surveyors of the navy who have been most eminent for genius, whose initiative services are highly conducive to naval success; and here also might be introduced medallions of dock-yard officers of distinguished merit; for without good ships, well equipped, in vain would our gallant seamen attempt to approach the pillar of renown.' P. 31.

On the north of the gymnasium, the curve of a *crescent*, 'the chord of whose arch is the entire side', is occupied with nine temples, and intervening groves of forest-trees. The centre temple is superior in magnitude and decoration, and has (with each alternate temple on either side) the modern addition of a dome. In these temples—'built *after the best Grecian models*'—the *nautic orders* are employed!

'In order to answer the end proposed by the nine temples, they should be properly tenanted and licensed for serving as taverns; and the friends of the honest tars of old England might as well drink their wine at the Thalia, as at the Three Tuns; sing a song at the Polyhymnia, as at the Blue Posts; and recount old stories of battles and sieges at the Clio, as at the sign of the Centurion; nor can it be supposed that the figures of the Grecian charmers, placed over the pediments, would prove less inviting signs, than Saracen's Heads or Green Dragons.' P. 33.

We pass through a triumphal arch to the Temple of Fame, which forms the principal member of the *edifice of approach*, called THE VICTORIUM.

To the triumphal arches of antiquity, the architect, on this occasion, states many objections, of which, in his own arch, he has 'steered clear.'

We must protect the ancient triumphal arches from the ravages of this volunteer. Because 'they *support* in a manner nothing,' they do not, *therefore*, 'appear to deviate from a law of nature.'

Nature often delights in curves, when no weight is incumbent: common eyes remark, with pleasure, the bendings of light branches, and the effect of their intersections.

Every unbiassed artist acknowledges the harmony and beauty of *three* arches skilfully combined. The tendency of this structure to increase the pomp of a procession, must be apparent on the slightest inspection of the arch of Constantine.

The *sole* object in these monuments was not the splendor of immediate victory. To transmit to future times the actions of conquerors, and to elucidate their history by bas-reliefs, this form of building afforded ample space.

At the angles of the *gymnasium*, in which we again wander, we discover four temples dedicated to the four winds—*Cæcias*, *Eurus*, *Libs*, and *Sciron:*

'From the lower apartment in each of these temples, serving for porter's lodges, you ascend to the circular story, which is covered with a dome supported by six columns of the *nautico-composite* order. The sides of the temples being open, show in the southern temples respectively, terrestrial globes, one having its north, and the other its south pole, pointing to the zenith; over which the insides of the domes exhibit the correspondent heavenly hemispheres. The terrestrial globes, as exposed to the weather, are cased and wrought in earthenware, and their delineations burnt in; the celestial globes above being executed in paint. In the other two temples are respectively seen a pile of various arms, and of emblems of navigation. Between column and column, a marine conch, or other large shell, is introduced as an ornament.' P. 36.

A colonnade is continued from temple to temple, with niches, 'in the manner of the wall of the court of the temple of Antoninus and Faustina.' Here are introduced—

'Naiades and Nereids, sea gods and goddesses, tritons, mermaids, marine centaurs, and other creatures of the imagination.' P. 36.

This assemblage is further enriched by statues of midshipmen, lieutenants, and captains, arrayed in the costume of modern discipline.

'One naval youth bears in his hand, the model of a top-mast with a sail, as the emblem of practical seamanship and activity; the other, a book, as a symbol of science. One lieutenant holds a bridle, emblem of temperance; and likewise the cup and serpent of Hygieia, as symbols of health: the other lieutenant has in his hand a telescope and at his foot a cock, both emblems of vigilance. One captain bears an hour-glass, symbol of experience; the other holds in his hand a branch of the olive, the famed gift of Minerva to man, as the emblem of wisdom.' P. 38.

Similar statues and emblems—ants, lions, eagles, bull-dogs, balloons, and cables—complete, with vases, the ornaments of the façades.

Our volunteer architect has forgotten that 'the simplicity of the antique air and attitude—however much to be admired—is ridiculous when joined to figures in a modern dress.'

Arrived at the Temple of Fame, we cannot minutely describe the embellishments of the entablatures, the statues

introduced between the columns, or the bas-reliefs; in which the kind Nereïds, *Thoë*, *Panope*, *Eupompe*, *Evagora*, and many nymphs, 'whose office it is to execute in subordinate capacities the pleasure of the trident-bearer,' are collected for the service of the nautic sons of Albion.

A bas-relief in one of the entablatures delighted us! *Milton* sits as judge between the 'competitors for the honour of having conferred on mankind the BLESSING of *gunpowder!*' The pretenders to this invention are carefully enumerated. After a serious hearing, Milton, like the consulted lawyers of our own times, leaves the subject in *glorious uncertainty*.

We are reminded by this architect, that our sublime poet 'was induced, in writing' his '*Paradise Lost*, poetically to ascribe this invention,' with that of cannon, to the *Devil*. Had he been aware of the sarcastic witticisms which we shall quote on this subject, he would have prevented a momentary smile at the absurdity of genius itself.

> "N'a-t'on pas vu, chez le sage Milton,
> D'anges ailés toute une légion
> Rougir de sang les célestes campagnes,
> Jetter au nez quatre ou cinq cens montagnes,
> ET, QUI PIS EST, *avoir de gros canons?*'
> Pardonnez-'*lui*' ce peu de fiction."

Other entablatures show the reputed inventors of the oar, the sail, the rudder, and the anchor: that of the south front of the triumphal arch traces the origin of the trident: the entablature of the north front

— 'is in honour of those men, in all ages, to whom geometry, astronomy and geography, and consequently navigation, as sciences, owe the greatest obligations, with particular reference to such as have eminently advanced the means of ascertaining the longitude.' P. 51.

(*To be continued.*)

ART. IV.—*Commentaries on the History and Cure of Diseases.* (*Continued from Vol. XXXVI. p.* 34.)

OUR author's next chapter, the thirty-fourth, is devoted to erysipelas; and on this subject we meet with a sound and judicious practice. Fever next commands our attention; for, as we have before observed, we pass the less important sections. On the subject of fever, in the desultory manner of Dr. Heberden, we cannot expect a continued system, or any extensive information. The antimonials, he thinks,

have no decided power of checking fever; and the bark, given largely in continued fevers, as was lately the practice, appears to him at least innocent, though not useful. Our author seems 'not aware that any important purpose can be answered by examining the fæces.' This sentence ought to be noticed with disapprobation, and not suffered to become an axiom, as it might be, supported by authority so great as Dr. Heberden's. If, for instance, a patient be reported to have twenty motions in twenty-four hours, and the abdomen continue tense, will not the appearance of the discharge direct us? We shall, in such circumstances, often find it, not fæculent, but mucous, or slimy and watery. Following the first idea only, we shall give restringents, when in reality effectual laxatives are required. Again:—The stools are unusually copious and frequent. If, on examination, we find them highly loaded with bile, we shall not dread the discharge, but allow it to continue, or even increase it. Once more:—When the stools change from a slimy appearance to a proper pullaceous consistence, it is time to abstain from laxatives, and to supply nourishment with caution. These are only a few of the circumstances which render our author's position highly dangerous. With respect to fever itself, we may shortly observe, that, *when formed*, medicine is unable to check it: in *forming*, it can often be prevented, leaving only a little languor during the first septenary period. The disease, undoubtedly, begins with great debility; and in sudden debility, thus superinduced, its essence consists. This, however, will not influence the practice, because, in the progress of fever, we can only guard against its effects. Of these, the chief is a disturbance of the balance of the circulation, producing, in consequence, congestions in some of the internal parts; often in the brain, more often, we think, in the liver. If Dr. Heberden have found large doses of bark innocent, it is only when the congestions have been obviated, or when evacuating medicines have been combined with it. In the higher classes, these congestions are not so considerable or conspicuous; and to these, perhaps, Dr. Heberden's observations have been confined. Even in intermittents, our author does not *violently* object to administering the bark during the fit. In the interval, he gives it early in the disease, and thinks little preparation by previous laxatives necessary; and the usual delays, in order to obtain a more perfect intermission, often injurious. Our own observations do not support this undiscriminating practice. In the fit, we have seen the bark evidently injurious: when given early, without previous evacuations of the stomach and bowels, the least inconvenience has been its failure.

Some judicious observations on hectic fever occur, and much attention is bestowed in distinguishing it from intermittent. Our author adds considerable doubts of the efficacy of the bark in mortifications. He concedes, however, that it does no injury.

In fistula ani, he admits a previous unhealthy state; and recommends, after the operation, issues or setons. We have lately learnt, and regret that it was *lately*, the propriety of correcting the general state of health previous to the operation.

On fluor albus, gleet, pregnancy, dropsy, and hæmorrhoïdes, the observations are often judicious. We may ask, however, are piles always hæmorrhoïdal varices? or are they never caused by a salutary deposition? We believe, with our author, that they are more often a disease than a relief; but we suggest the question, as the prevalence of the belief of their salutary nature, and some singular facts recorded by able observers, seem to demand some attention. They certainly suppurate at times.

On the subject of hydrocephalus, Dr. Heberden strangely confounds the external with the internal. The distinction is of more importance, as they require very different treatment. The description of hypochondriasis is truly excellent; but the disease is, we think, improperly confounded with hysteria. The remarks, however, are elegant and judicious. Some parts we shall select. We wish our limits would permit us to transcribe the whole.

'It is the condition of this malady to make the patient hopeless of a cure: but neither reason nor experience justifies his despair. For every part of the body, as far as our senses can judge, is whole and uninjured by his sufferings, great as they are; and the mind and animal powers are indeed oppressed, and cannot exert themselves, but their abilities are all entire. Hypochondriac and hysteric persons will look well, and grow fat with their complaints, and have now and then respites from them, in which they have all the sensations of most perfect health. It is well known, that some extraordinary works of genius have been the offspring of the intervals of melancholy. This malady will sometimes cease spontaneously; and I have known it leave a person, without any returns, for near twenty years. Now, what more encouraging circumstances can there be in an illness, than to know that the life is in no danger from it, that it is not incurable, and that, when it is removed, the patient will become as perfectly well as if he had never experienced it?

'In the cure of all chronical distempers, it is a matter of great importance to put the general health, by a proper regimen, into the best state possible; by which the self-correcting principle of an animal body will be enabled to exert itself with the greatest vigour; and this, in some diseases, is the whole of what can be done. This therefore must be carefully attended to in a languid state of spirits, by

avoiding all the general causes of ill health, together with all the particular ones before mentioned, which may be conjectured to have brought on, or to have aggravated this malady.

'Evacuations are very ill borne in this disorder; but as it is usually accompanied with costiveness, we need not scruple to give occasionally three or four grains of Rufus's pill, or a small portion of any other gentle aperient, so as just to procure one motion every day; for this will mitigate, or prevent, many of the bowel complaints. A gentle emetic may also be sometimes wanted, when the stomach is uncommonly loaded and sick. All further evacuations, and particularly bleeding, scarcely ever fail to heighten every symptom. It is so little in the power of any medicines to give the gout, and it is so uncertain whether the gout would take away the hypochondriac complaints (for in some persons I have known it constantly bring them on), that I think it nugatory to attempt a cure by giving any medicines which are supposed to create or to excite a fit. Bath waters, according to my experience, are at least useless, unless in some extraordinary disorders of the stomach; and the going thither, or a sea voyage, or foreign countries, can only be advisable when they will remove the patient from a scene of grief, or cares, or too much business. Sea bathing, and chalybeate waters, may be serviceable upon the same account; and may besides, in some cases, improve the general health. The gum-resins, and wild valerian root, and steel, have the credit of possessing a specific virtue in all maladies attributed to the nerves: my experience of them will not add much to their reputation. The nerves of the stomach and bowels have so great a dominion and controul over the whole nervous system, and these parts are so generally disordered in hypochondriac and hysteric patients, that, in my judgment, the best medicines will be such as correct their acidities, and are known by experience to be efficacious in recovering them to their proper strength and functions. This purpose is best brought about by the aromatic and bitter medicines, with which a small proportion of aperients may be joined when they are wanted. These may be given in pills, in drops, in tinctures, or infusions; and by this variety of forms, and by the small compass in which they may lie, they may easily be continued, as long as may be necessary, without becoming nauseous.

'Many in a lowness of spirits are not indisposed to raise them by wine and spirituous liquors; and they are encouraged and pressed to do it by their well-meaning but ill-judging friends. No words can be too strong to paint the danger of such a practice in its proper colours. The momentary relief is much too dearly bought by the far greater languor which succeeds; and the necessity of increasing the quantity of these liquors, in order to obtain the same effect, irrecoverably ruins the health, and in the most miserable manner. If the anxiety of dejection become intolerable, and must have some present relief, it is better to seek it in opium, than in wine. A few drops of the tincture of opium, with, or without the tincture of asafœtida, or antimonial wine, would be a much safer cordial for the drooping spirits than spirituous liquors; and might be increased without equal danger of hurting the health, and without bringing on the same difficulty of ever leaving it off again. My experience has often taught

me, how safely, and consistently with business, a course of taking opium may be continued for a considerable part of a man's life; and how practicable it is to be weaned from the habit of it: while every body's experience must have shown them the danger of persisting in a course of drinking immoderately, and the almost impossibility of ever reclaiming a sot.' P. 231.

The chapter on jaundice is peculiarly excellent and valuable. We shall select, as a specimen, the remarks on vomiting and purging in this disease.

'Vomiting is commonly the next symptom which demands the physician's assistance. This seems to be an effort of nature to dislodge the stones; but it may be a question, whether it be such an effort as ought to be encouraged, or checked; for though on the one hand this violent concussion may force the stone back into the cystis, or forward into the duodenum, and so effect either a temporary relief or a perfect cure, yet it may be feared, if the stone be so fixed in the duct, as not to be easily moved, that the action of vomiting will lacerate the membranous duct, and be the cause of future mischief, as well as of present pain. Now, whether this fear be just, or groundless, can only be determined by experience; and by what I have observed of icteric cases, it has appeared to me, that a vomit excited, while the pain was intense, has rather quieted than aggravated it, and has never brought it on. But if we be secure of its doing no harm, there is so good a chance of its being beneficial, that, whether the patient have a vomiting, or not, it is a judicious practice to order an emetic, either at first, or as soon as the intenseness of the pain has been alleviated, and occasionally to repeat it. To excite a vomiting in this malady is much more easy than to stop it; and therefore it is always proper, and sometimes necessary, to order an opiate to be taken after a moderate number of strains have been procured, or if the sickness continue longer than usual.

'Similar good effects may with reason be expected from purging medicines, by their increasing the natural motion of the intestines, and soliciting a greater flow of bile, as well as of all the other humours which are poured into them. Mercurial purges have been preferred by some practitioners: but there appears nothing in the known powers of mercury peculiarly useful in dislodging a biliary concretion; and the preference should be given to those purges which act with the most ease, and may be continued with the greatest safety. Such are the sea-water, the water of many purging springs, as also many of the neutral salts, dissolved either in water, or, if it can be borne, in a weak infusion of some bitter vegetable substance. These, as we know by abundant experience, may be taken for several months, either every day, or every other day, without palling the appetite, or exhausting the strength or spirits. But in some cases there may be reason for using other purgatives; and I have known a few grains of rhubarb, or one or two drams of tincture of senna, or of rhubarb, taken with advantage in a small draught of some moderately bitter infusion. The jaundice of infants and young children soon yields to a few purging medicines.

'If it happen that the jaundice is of itself attended with a purging, there may be nothing further necessary, than by gentle means to prevent its being excessive, and at the same time to strengthen the stomach by proper bitters.' P. 254.

We were particularly pleased with the remarks on ileus, which are highly judicious and satisfactory. What is observed of hernia, joined with ileus, and the necessity of considering them, in many instances, independent of each other, requires particular attention. The remarks on ileus, sometimes consisting in inverted—probably violent and irregular peristaltic—motion, and on the use of opiates, are highly satisfactory. In violent pain, we have often found it proper to check the spasm by free doses of opium, before we begin our purgative plan; and have not observed, when the pain has been relieved, that any disadvantage has arisen from the delay of the evacuations. Calomel, with the cathartic extract, has, in *our opinion*, increased the purgative power; to which may be added, that, from its weight, it eludes a common action of the stomach in vomiting, and sometimes seems, in the same way, to prevent the extract from being rejected. We may here shortly remark, that an inflammation of the peritoneum sometimes brings on symptoms nearly resembling ileus. The chief distinction arises from the pain being more general, the abdomen more uniformly tense and sore, without any relief by stools.

On the subject of madness, the observations merit attention. We shall transcribe a passage which we think correct and judicious; but which militates a little against the author's own opinions in other parts of the commentaries.

'It is an inveterate opinion, which my experience has uniformly contradicted, that madness is influenced by the moon. The gout is supposed to absorb other distempers, and to turn them so perfectly into its own nature, that no traces shall appear of any other malady beside the gout. I will not answer for the truth of this observation; but I make no doubt of my having observed some power of this kind in madness; upon the access of which I have remarked an extraordinary and immediate recovery of strength and health in one, who was languishing with extreme weakness consequent upon a fever. In another, who had every sign of a pulmonary consumption advancing fast to its last stage, madness came on, and presently made a cure of the consumption, of which I almost despaired by any other means.' P. 276.

Under the chapters of '*intestinorum dolores*,' '*lumborum dolor*,' and some others, the author is very usefully employed in tracing the source and discriminating the symptoms of the real complaint which occasions these indistinct feelings.

A useful volume may be written on such subjects by an experienced practitioner.

The chapter on '*ischuria*' contains some valuable observations. We have seen a case of this kind, in which all deception was carefully guarded against, continue six weeks; nor was there any vicarious discharge, till after three weeks, when a profuse perspiration came on, which lasted forty-eight hours. It ended happily. In old people, there is often a total and unconquerable palsy of the venal vessels, which, however, will sometimes yield to large doses of turpentine. This medicine the stomach will bear more easily, and in larger quantity, if mixed with honey, by melting over a slow fire. Cantharides we have never found active, except *in* the bladder.

On the subject of worms, the observations are unusually trifling. Dr. Heberden thinks there is no specific for worms; but medicines for this purpose may be often depended on, perhaps more securely than in other complaints. Helleboraster (bear's-foot) approaches near to a specific, in lumbrici; the male fern-root, followed by drastic purgatives, or even the rough raspings of pewter, in tænia; and clysters of asafœtida and oil, followed by aloëtic and mercurial purgatives, in ascarides. Under the head of mammæ, our author recommends, very strongly, extirpation of a schirrous or even of an ulcerated cancer. It certainly is often too long delayed. He might have added, to quiet many uneasy apprehensions, that a tumor, or even an abscess, from milk, has scarcely, in any instance, become cancerous.

The chapter on menstrua contains many curious and some useful observations on this discharge. We know not whether it may be accidental; but we think, within these few years, we have found it continue to a much more advanced period than in the earlier æras of our practice. In advanced life, the menses sometimes return profusely. This the author very properly ascribes to a disordered state of the uterus; but we have seen it occur in a solitary instance, as a useful discharge, or as an accidental hæmorrhage from any other part. Styptics and astringents Dr. Heberden thinks useless. They undoubtedly are so; and the bleeding is only checked by anodynes and refrigerants. The bleedings, in the last stage of hectic, we have seen relieved only by nitre. Chamomile flowers, in our author's opinion, seem to possess some specific powers as an emmenagogue.

Under the head of meazles, Dr. Heberden gives a history of the regular disease. The affection, when received, appears to produce the disease from ten to fourteen days after

its reception. There is reason to suspect, that, in the earlier stage, it is not remarkably infectious.

The chapter on the diseases of the eyes is interesting and amusing; but we find little addition to our practical knowledge. We shall select a peculiarly singular case of nyctalopia.

'A man about thirty years old had in the spring a tertian fever, for which he took too small a quantity of bark, so that the returns of it were weakened without being entirely removed. He therefore went into the cold-bath, and after bathing twice he felt no more of his fever. Three days after his last fit, being then on board of a ship in the river, he observed at sun-setting, that all objects began to look blue, which blueness gradually thickened into a cloud; and not long after he became so blind, as hardly to perceive the light of a candle. The next morning about sun-rising his sight was restored as perfectly as ever. When the next night came on, he lost his sight again in the same manner; and this continued for twelve days and nights. He then came ashore, where the disorder of his eyes gradually abated, and in three days was entirely gone. A month after, he went on board of another ship, and after three days' stay in it, the night-blindness returned as before, and lasted all the time of his remaining in the ship, which was nine nights. He then left the ship; and his blindness did not return while he was upon land. Some little time afterwards, he went into another ship, in which he continued ten days, during which time the blindness returned only two nights, and never afterwards.

'In the August following, he complained of loss of appetite, weakness, shortness of breath, and a cough: he fell away very fast, had frequent shiverings, pains in his loins, dysury, and vomitings; all which complaints increased upon him till the middle of November, when he died.'

'He had formerly been employed in lead-works, and had twice lost the use of his hands, as is usual among the workers in this metal.' P. 334.

Palsy and apoplexy are considered at an unusual length; and the section contains a great number of curious and important facts. They are too miscellaneous and independent, however, to admit of abridgement; and we perceive none of such superior interest as to induce us to copy them. The whole may be read with advantage even by the experienced physician. As the cause of apoplexy has occasioned some discussion, we shall transcribe our author's sentiments on the subject. They indeed differ, in a great measure, from our own; but this is no place for controversy. We may add, however, that we admit the cause of apoplexy proceeding from affections purely nervous, but think the cases of this kind comparatively few.

'Theory may teach, but will find some difficulty in proving, that

apoplexies must arise from a compression of the brain, owing either to a distension of the blood-vessels, or to extravasated blood from their rupture, and that the energies of the nerves can be deadened by no other cause beside fulness. The usual subjects of palsies, as before mentioned, do not favour this hypothesis; and the operation of several poisons in disturbing or annihilating the nervous functions can hardly be accounted for by such a theory: as little can it be reconciled with the gradual manner in which most palsies, and many apoplexies, are found to advance, and with the strong disposition to relapses in those who have been emaciated and broken by many former fits. Some palsies must be owing to other causes besides fulness; and whatever these causes be, they may be the only ones of most palsies. A rupture of some blood-vessels in the brain may be the origin of some apoplexies, but probably of few; because these can hardly escape being instantly fatal; and we know that there is a far greater proportion which do not end in present death. Some practical authors tell us they have been glad of finding a fever in a paralytic; or desirous of exciting one. This but ill accords with the evacuating, and cooling regimen. But I must own that I have no faith at all in this doctrine; for according to all my experience, the more fever there is, the worse it always fares with the patient, in every external and internal ail; and the more natural the pulse is, the more hopes there will be of a prosperous event.' P. 354.

If there be any disposition to vomit, it is assisted by a little carduus tea; but emetics are not recommended. What relates to warm and cold bathing, we shall select without a comment.

'When the patient is judged to be pretty well out of the reach of present danger, he must in the next place be assisted in freeing himself from the several disagreeable reliques of the former attack, and in preventing a return. For these purposes a journey to Bath is generally proposed; about which physicians seem to be divided in their opinions; some thinking, that the drinking and bathing at Bath help to recover paralytics, while others are persuaded that they are the ready means of turning a palsy into an apoplexy. If I were to judge from my own experience, I should say that the Bath waters do neither good nor harm to these patients; some of whom gradually recover while they stay at Bath; and others suffer a fresh attack and die there; just as they would in any other place. I therefore cannot advise Bath; but if it be desired by the invalids themselves, or any of their friends, there is no reason to hinder their going thither. There is not much more to be said in favour of the cold bath. Out of a great number of persons, whom I have known to use sea-bathing for several successive seasons, and long courses of cold bathing in weakness and giddiness left by palsies, some have thought them prejudicial, and more have thought them useful: but from all their accounts I have concluded, that cold bathing is innocent, or in a small degree useful. So that the chief reason against advising, or allowing it, is that paralytics are liable to relapses of their disorder, let them do

what they will; and if any fresh access, or aggravation of their symptoms should happen at the time of using the cold bath, or soon after, it would of course be charged, though very unjustly, to the bathing.' P. 357.

Opium is allowed in paralytic complaints, to conquer restlessness or pain, and with great propriety. A curious case of catalepsy is subjoined.

Under the title of '*pectoris dolor*,' our author treats of some anomalous pains in the breast, and particularly of *angina pectoris*; but, respecting this last complaint, he gives no additional important information. We lately saw a very striking instance of it in an elderly woman, relieved apparently by a fit of gout; but the spasms returned with a violence truly alarming, and yielded seemingly to antispasmodics: they disappeared without any gout supervening. We have seen more than one instance, in which the complaint has passed off completely—we dare not say that it was from the efficacy of medicine. A short case of *morbus pedicularis*, we shall select.

'1762, Aug. 23. I was this day informed by sir Edward Wilmot, that he had seen a man who was afflicted with the morbus pedicularis. Small tumors were dispersed over the skin, in which there was a very perceptible motion, and a violent itching. Upon being opened with a needle they were found to contain insects in every respect resembling common lice, excepting that they were whiter. Sir Edward Wilmot ordered a wash, consisting of four ounces of spirits of wine, four ounces of rectified oil of turpentine, and six drams of camphor. The day following he told me all the insects had been killed on being touched with this liquor, and that all the itching had immediately ceased.' P. 369.

Of consumption, Dr. Heberden speaks somewhat at large, and to the purpose. He is not without suspicion of its being infectious to bedfellows, and those much confined with the person affected*; and, in the treatment, relies largely on the mild plan of diet and moderate warmth. The distinction of mucus and pus is, he thinks, precarious; and the difficulty of breathing seems at no time to prevent, in his opinion, the employing a decoction of bark. He conceives, that, by prudent precautions to keep the disease in moderate subjection, the disposition may wear off. The chapter on the *colica Pictonum* contains a very accurate description of the disease, which our author supposes, perhaps without

* Not to excite unnecessary apprehensions, we may add, that our observations coincide with the author's; that, from long and very close confinement with a consumptive person, there are suspicions of its being communicated; but in such instances, unless where from relationship the constitutions may be similar, the communicated disease has never, under our observation, been fatal.

sufficient reason, to be owing exclusively to lead. We remember a painter, who had had frequent attacks, cured by keeping his hands very carefully clean, and eating every morning, before he began his work, some fat bacon. The danger of tinned and glazed vessels is repeated, certainly without foundation. A curious, but not a sufficiently discriminated, case of *maculæ purpureæ* follows.

Rheumatism is the subject of extensive remark; and Dr. Heberden seises, with peculiar propriety, the near relation of this complaint to palsy. He thinks bleeding not of very essential service; copying, perhaps, from the events in more polished life, where the constitutions are less robust. We used to suppose that sometimes bleeding rendered the effect of blisters more certain, when premised just before their application; but, such is the change of seasons and constitutions, that we seldom see very acute rheumatisms, or violently inflammatory peripneumonies. Mercurials, Dr. Heberden thinks, may be injurious, as a mercurial course has brought on rheumatism. It is, however, that mercurial course, whose proper operation has been suppressed by cold. With antimonials, when the disease is protracted, before it assumes the chronic form, we think mercury has been useful; and we have suspected, that mercurial purgatives, interposed, have shortened the complaint. Of the utility of Dover's powder, our author speaks also with hesitation, perhaps from employing it in too small doses. A scruple, with five grains of salt of harts-horn, forms a very valuable remedy. We may just mention, that we sometimes meet with a most intractable complaint, perhaps referable to this head, *viz.* violent pains in the feet or ankles. It has frequently baffled every attempt.

In strangury, Dr. Heberden thinks camphor useless, and prefers an opiate clyster; but the latter is, to many, an unpleasant remedy; and, in large doses with opium, camphor very frequently succeeds.

From the chapter on *struma*, we shall copy some facts which we think of importance.

'The origin of this mischief in these adults was probably to be found in the unwholesomeness of their diet, or situation. The use of a very hard water was suspected to have made one of them scrofulous; for he began to be so after using it constantly for a few years, and continued so as long as he used it, but upon leaving it off, all the scrofulous appearances left him. It is most probably owing to some bad quality of the water, that swellings of the throat are endemial in some parts of England, and notoriously among the inhabitants of the Alps; though I by no means think it owing to the use of snow-water, to which it has been attributed: for I believe on account

of its great purity this would be one of the best remedies they could employ *.' P. 419.

The account of the 'small-pox' contains some curious and valuable facts. Dr. Heberden thinks that inoculation will not always secure the patient from having the small-pox afterwards, if the eruption have been imperfect without maturation. The instance, however, subjoined, explains the difficulty; for, in this case, it is evident that the inoculation did not succeed, and the eruption was *not* the consequence of the operation. A person in the small-pox does not infect another till at least after two days from the appearance of the eruption.

'An excruciating pain in the loins has never failed to be succeeded by a bad small-pox; and the more violent the pain, the greater has been the danger: it is much safer to have it between the shoulders; but it is safest to have none in any part of the back.

'Excessive vomiting for the whole time before the eruption is seldom followed by a mild disease; and if the vomiting be continued after the eruption is completed, the patient's life is in great danger, even though the small-pox be not confluent, as I have seen more than once.

'It is very common to have convulsions precede a mild small-pox in children, and the same has been known in some adults with as prosperous an event.

'The variolous infection does some force to the vessels, which supply the menstrual discharge in women; and in the worst sort of small-pox this evacuation has come on out of its regular course two days before the small-pox has begun to shew itself, and has continued to flow in an excessive manner. It has sometimes appeared before its regular time, together with the eruption. But what I have more usually observed is, that this uterine flux in almost all female patients has begun as soon as the eruption was completed, and it has continued from one day to five. This discharge, though sometimes much greater than the natural one, does not seem to check the progress of the small-pox, nor to sink the patient's strength, and therefore very little pains need be taken to stop it, even though we had any ready and innocent way of doing it.

'That very formidable symptom, bloody urine, has come on about the fifth day from the first sickness; the eruption in the mean time has hardly risen above the skin, chiefly shewing itself in purple spots

* 'The inhabitants of Rheims had been so afflicted with strumous diseases, that they maintained an hospital for the sole purpose of curing such patients. They then made use of no other water than what they had from wells. After a machine was constructed, which brought the water from a neighbouring river, and distributed it into all quarters of the city, it was observed that scrofulous disorders were become less common: in the space of thirty years the number of these patients were reduced to one half of what it had usually been; and it continued to decrease so fast, as to give occasion for thinking, that the greater part of the revenues of the hospital might be applied to other purposes.—See *Royale de Médecine*, vol. ii. *Hist.* p. 280.'

and blotches, and resembling variolous pimples only in very few places. The stools are likewise bloody; the very tears have been like *lotura carnium*; and if a small scratch has any where been made in the skin, the blood has for many hours continued to ooze out, and has hardly been stopped. This hopeless state has been terminated by death in three or four days after the eruption; nor have I remarked one exception. But the urine may be discoloured in the small-pox, and have a hue as dark as coffee, even where there is no reason to suspect its proceeding from gravel, and yet afford no ground for alarm, if not joined with other bad symptoms. In a middling sort of small-pox, the urine became black on the fourth day of the eruption, and continued so for four days. In another, the same black urine began on the second day of the sickness, having a sediment like coffee-grounds for two days. Both these patients went on prosperously, without any other bad or unusual symptom. The pustules have sometimes shewn themselves not very different from their general appearance in a middling sort; but the interstices have been filled with small round purple spots, and the distemper has been fatal on the third day of the eruption.' P. 438.

The fetus has, in no case that occurred to our author, appeared to receive the variolous infection; and some singular circumstances, respecting successive crops, are added. In an epidemical ague, on the appearance of the small-pox fever, the ague ceased, and always 'returned after the small-pox had terminated, and *one or two purges had been taken*.' It has been observed, that active purges will again bring on intermitting paroxysms; and it would be important, could we know if they returned where the evacuation was omitted. A history of the chicken-pox is inserted; but we have already received it from our author in the Medical Transactions.

Some judicious remarks on diseases of the stomach, with three cases of a diseased spleen, and one of diseased pancreas, occur in this volume. With respect to the first, we find no particular plan of relief. Columbo is not mentioned, though of great service in stomachs subject to acidity. It is singular, that, because acids are thrown up, absorbents are considered to be the only remedies, without reflecting on the changes which take place in the stomach; and that, though acids be present, the complaints are not always owing to them. A red herring will often give heart-burn. We have known broiled bacon do the same; but this kind of disease cannot be owing to acids. Mucilaginous substances, which certainly inviscate, though they do not change, acrid matters, will more frequently succeed. Lime-water seems chiefly serviceable by dilution; for it can absorb but a very small proportion of acid. The cases of diseased spleen, &c. offer no decisive characteristic symptoms: they are chiefly such as attend impaired digestion, and broken constitutions.

Vertigo, vomiting, and loss of voice (*vox*), complaints of the urinary organs and uterus, conclude the volume: they contain some curious observations and judicious reflexions, but offer nothing that we can with propriety enlarge on. Upon the whole, we consider this volume as a very valuable publication, meriting a particular attention from practitioners of every age. The best will be informed by it; and the younger, if not too much affected by the languor already noticed, will learn to correct their eagerness, and the forward, often the injudicious activity derived from an early confidence in the powers of medicine. The author himself expresses some surprise that he has not done more. On this subject, we ought not to dwell. The calm benevolence which soothes the evening of a well-spent life, beams in every line of the work; and all practitioners, if they cannot imitate our author's excellence, may, at least, express an eager wish that their 'last end may be like his.'

ART. V.—*Annals of the French Revolution; by A. F. Bertrand De Moleville, Minister of State. (Continued from p. 390 of our last Volume.)*

OUR last article upon this voluminous publication terminated with a history of the celebrated tumults of the twentieth of June; the neglect of Petion, the existing mayor of Paris, in the discharge of his duty; the inattention of the commandant of the national guard; the effeminate alarm of the king's ministers; and the resolution of the king himself, by which alone—or at least in conjunction with the efforts which Petion prevailed upon himself eventually to make in behalf of the royal family—the mob were persuaded to return home without having effected any serious mischief, independently of the absurd and outrageous mockery offered to the persons of the king and the dauphin. Petion, for his misconduct, was justly suspended in his office by a resolution of the department, confirmed by the royal signature. The act of suspension, however, was no sooner submitted to the national assembly, than it was taken off, and Petion restored to his former dignity. Our author, as may be expected, is in a violent rage against both Petion and the assembly, on this occasion; and exhibits, in his remarks upon the transaction, some portion of that partiality which pervades the greater part of his work, and will render it, without a perpetual caveat, a dangerous document for the future historian to consult. Like the lord-mayor of our own metropolis, in the riots before the last, Petion appears to have been, at first, culpably indolent, and inapprehensive of danger;

yet, from his subsequent conduct—and, more especially, the dexterity which he manifested in withdrawing the mob from the palace, and leaving the person of the king uninjured when entirely in his power—we must necessarily acquit him of all intentional treason. But what is M. Bertrand's account?—Alluding to the communication of the act of his suspension to the national assembly, he asserts—

'It was heard by the assembly with the most indecent marks of anger and impatience, and the reader's voice was at times drowned by their murmurs. It was scarcely read through, when Petion appeared at the bar and pleaded his own cause, not from any occasion he had to defend it, for it was gained before he opened his mouth; but to revenge himself on the directory of the department, whom he accused, in almost every sentence, of prevarication, imposture, aristocracy, counter-revolutionary sentiments, &c. "When I read this resolution," said he, "I shuddered with indignation, and my soul revolted against the treacherous hands that traced it. I should never have conceived that one of the best actions of my public life, one that leaves the most pleasing reflections on my mind, could have become a ground of persecution." What a villain must he be, whose best action, on his own confession, was to have countenanced the outrages of the 20th of June! and what a heart must that be that had not more pleasing sensations than those communicated to it by the reflections created by that horrid day!' Vol. vii. P. 8.

A man must indeed be a skilful logician who can extract such a conclusion from such a speech. Petion does not *confess* that he *countenanced* the outrages of the twentieth of June; much less does he boast of such a *countenance* as his *best action*. He manifestly alludes to the dexterity with which he seduced the mob from the royal palace, liberated the king from their lawless power, and induced them to retire quietly to their own homes. That he was highly culpable in the outset of this extraordinary tumult, we have already admitted; but he still might contemplate the subsequent part of his conduct, as exhibiting *one of the best actions of his public life*—as *one that left the most pleasing reflexions on his mind*.—Our author, indeed, exhibits the same intemperance in asserting that Petion had no occasion to defend himself, or to plead his own cause, since it was gained before he opened his mouth; for it is well known, and is afterwards allowed, by M. Bertrand himself, that the due form of law was at least adhered to; that the royal proclamation, and the defence of the accused, together with the necessary papers on each side, were referred to the commission of Twelve; and that the report was formally communicated by the *procureur-syndic* of the department. It is notorious that the party to which Petion had attached himself, and which was denominated the *Côté-gauche*, was more numerous in

the assembly than the opposite party of the *Côté-droit*; and we well know, from occurrences among ourselves, that, when a decision once becomes an affair of party, the man who belongs to the more powerful will have a strong chance of success: but the French revolution has furnished us with far more violent infringements upon the law, than the present case of Petion; and we cannot avoid thinking that M. Bertrand widely departs from the sober gravity of a historian, in asserting that his cause *was gained before he opened his mouth.*

Our author's remarks upon the absurd manifesto of the combined powers under the command of the duke of Brunswick, are more entitled to attention, and display a full knowledge of the subject.

'The manifesto of the powers at length appeared, and for a moment gave a pause to the manœuvres which agitated the capital. This manifesto, so much expected, was not that, the plan of which had been proposed by Mallet-du-Pan, and agreed to, but one drawn up by Dulimon, as dictated by the ministers of the emperor and king of Prussia; and the duke of Brunswick, who signed it as commander in chief, had not even been consulted upon it. The publication of it produced an effect the very reverse of what had been expected. All parties, some violent royalists excepted, were provoked at the boastings of the duke of Brunswick, or laughed at them. The factious did not fail to attribute to the suggestions of the king all the menaces respecting the safety of himself and his family, and thence concluded that his majesty was in correspondence with the enemies of the nation. How could it be expected that the threat of giving up Paris to be pillaged would have any effect upon the Jacobins, few of whom had any property there? Still less was it calculated to intimidate the brigands, who had flocked thither in such numbers, only in the hope of that very pillage, for which they would not have failed to join the Austrians and Prussians. It would have been less absurd, and more efficacious, to have threatened to level with the ground, in all the towns taken, the houses belonging to the presidents and principal speakers of the Jacobin clubs, and to give up to pillage all the apartments in which they were lodgers. Had a single example of this kind been made, it is probable that most of the Jacobins of the kingdom would have been turned into the streets.' Vol. vii. p. 83.

'The factious showed more ability in their choice of means to promote desertion in the foreign armies. They laid it down as a principle, "that desertion was but an honourable exercise of a natural right, when any one chose to leave a land of slavery, to take refuge in one of liberty: that free men were but of one country, and that there could exist no obligation on the part of a man deprived of his natural rights, towards him who had deprived him of them." On this principle the assembly, on the 2d of August, in consequence of Guadet's report, passed the following decree:

"1. Every officer or soldier of the enemy's army, who, desiring to range themselves under the banner of liberty, ſhall appear at a mili-

tary post, or before one of the constituted authorities, as a French citizen, shall be received with fraternal affection; shall be presented, as a sign of his adoption, with a cockade of three colours; shall enjoy a pension for life of an hundred livres, of which one quarter shall be always in advance, and shall be admitted to take the civic oath. The pension, upon their decease, shall be continued to their widows.

"2. Those who would not contract a military engagement, shall not be forced to it; those who chuse it, shall be admitted to what army they please, and shall receive the ordinary fee upon enlisting.

"3. Lists shall be formed of foreigners in the service of France, and the pensions of those who die shall be continued to the survivors, till the latter shall have annuities of five hundred livres each.

"4. The widows of such military persons will receive the annual pension of one hundred livres, but will not share the benefits of the tontine.

"5. Those who do not take a military engagement, shall retire into the interior parts of the kingdom; those who shall serve, will have the same reward for brilliant actions as French citizens."

'Could there be a more alluring bait for all such soldiers as wanted spirit, were disgusted with service, dissatisfied with their officers or their pay, than the certainty of being paid, and in advance, without having any thing to do, or being exposed to any danger? And so it happened; for the consequence of this decree was, that desertions from the Austrian and Prussian armies were very much increased, whereas the duke of Brunswick's manifesto made no impression on the French soldiers.' Vol. vii. p. 96.

The manifesto of the duke of Brunswick was followed, a few days afterwards, by a declaration of the French princes in the combined army—a paper which is even at present but little known to the world, and which is given at large in the appendix to this work, and marked No. XXX: its length prevents us from translating it: but the opposite spirit with which it is composed seems to prove obviously that the French princes themselves were fearful of the effects of the bombast and idle menaces of the former. This second paper—or rather *essay*, for its length entitles it to such a classification—is designed, therefore, to soften the animosities of their countrymen, to calm the general agitation that prevailed, and to intermix the benedictions of the princes with the curses of the duke. This artificial and wheedling publication, however, had as little effect on the infuriate temper of the French people, as the outrageous declaration of the combined courts; and it is difficult to affirm which principally contributed to precipitate the catastrophe of the king's death—the very fact which both were equally intended to prevent. The abrupt retreat of this mighty armament, after all its frantic menaces, is to the present moment as extraordinary and unaccountable as that of the Gauls from the Roman Capitol, in the dictatorship of

Camillus. The king of Prussia appears to have been the first person in the confederate council who was dissatisfied with the aspect of affairs, and especially with the result of the negotiation with Dumourier for the exchange of prisoners; by which it was conceded to the latter, that all emigrants, as being Frenchmen in arms against their own country, should be excluded from its benefit. Alluding to this extraordinary concession, our author thus continues the history of this celebrated transaction—

'Meanwhile the king of Prussia, finding that the negociation which he had opened with Dumourier was not attended with the issue he had expected, and that the national convention had already decreed the abolition of the monarchy, and proclaimed the republic, his majesty thought it necessary to delay no longer taking a final determination; and he called a council at Hans, to which the principal generals of all the armies were summoned. General Kalkreuth, who spoke first, stated the bad condition of the cavalry, and observed, that to attack the French army, it would be necessary to march to the right and pass the Auve, in order to come upon the left flank of the enemy; a movement that could not be made without still farther endangering the communications, which were already but too much exposed.

'The duke of Brunswick and the other Prussian generals urged the bad state of the army, the difficulty of subsisting them, the obstructions thrown in the way of prompt movements and hazardous enterprises, and the imprudence and danger of exposing to the uncertain issue of a battle an army so weakened by disease, and whose communication with Verdun, the only place from which they could obtain provisions, was threatened.

'The French generals, and particularly mareschal de Broglio and mareschal de Castries, opposed these objections with all the energy excited by the situation of the royal family, and an ardent desire to fly to their relief. They had no doubt of the success of a general engagement; and it was their opinion that it ought to take place as soon as possible, that they might march to Châlons, where they should find immense supplies, by means of which the Prussian army would no longer be liable to be weakened by the separation of numerous detachments to protect communications become useless. General Clerfaye supported this opinion.

'The king of Prussia, animated by the same sentiments, inclined so openly to this opinion, that at the breaking up of the conference, he spoke of fixing the 29th for the attack: it is certain at least, that the news of it was carried to the princes, and spread the liveliest joy throughout their army. But Frederic William in the end adopted the opinion of the duke of Brunswick and the Prussian generals; and at the moment when the armies expected to receive orders to march against the enemy, they were commanded to retreat. On the day before, the suspension of hostilities was suddenly countermanded, and the friendly communications broken off by Dumourier on the receipt of the manifesto, or declaration, which the duke of Brunswick sent to him by one of his aid-de-camps. "The duke of Brunswick," said he,

"certainly takes me for a burgomaster of Amsterdam: tell him, that from this moment the truce is at an end, and that I gave the order for its ceasing before you."

'The princes, with their cavalry, left their cantonments on the 30th, and arrived, after a march of two days, at Vouziers, whence they advanced to Stenay. The Austrians and Prussians retreated beyond the Aisne with the same expedition. The bad roads, and the treachery of the waggoners, occasioned the loss of many of the waggons, which were pillaged by the patriots and by the Prussians themselves.

'As soon as the first column of the army of the princes was on the highway to Stenay, several bodies of French cavalry were seen coming out of the woods of Mont-Dieu, and spreading themselves behind the hills, then suddenly sending scouts to the heights, some regiments of infantry appeared in view with two pieces of cannon, which they pointed on the column. The manœuvres ordered by mareschal Broglio at this moment were so executed, that those random gunners were soon made to vanish, and the retreat of the princes secured, notwithstanding all the dispositions which Dumourier had made to harass their march, and to fall on their rear guard. They arrived at Stenay, where they fixed their head quarters.

'The retreat of the Prussians was made with the greatest order, as Dumourier himself confessed. The king never left his rear guard, where he personally distinguished himself, evincing as much perseverance as he had before displayed bravery in the battle of Valmy, where he was at the head of his columns; but this unfortunate army might be traced by the dead bodies of men and horses that were strewed upon the road.

'It was not yet too late to undertake the siege of Sedan; it was the duke of Brunswick's intention, and general Clerfaye and the prince de Hohenloe were already instructed to proceed to the operations, when the duke de Saxe-Teschen recalled general Clerfaye's army, on receiving news that Dumourier was marching to the relief of Lisle; and a few days after the landgrave of Hesse recalled his troops, to defend his own states, which were threatened by general Custine: thus was the duke of Brunswick forced not only to renounce the plan of besieging Sedan, but to evacuate, first, Verdun, and then Longwy, to go and recover Francfort, arrest the progress of general Custine, and save Coblentz and the territory of Trêves.

'Such was the deplorable issue of this famous campaign, from which the allied powers, the French princes, and all the royalists, expected such favourable consequences! And to what cause can we impute reverses so unforeseen, so incredible? This question must be left for the future decision of history: it will not be determined till the passions and party spirit, which never look but at the outside of things, be sufficiently allayed to give place to impartiality. In the first place, it is necessary to banish the chimerical and absurd suppositions which, at the time, ignorance or malice obtruded on the public curiosity, as the motives for the duke of Brunswick's retreat. The facts which I have related seem to me to prove sufficiently that it had become indispensable at the time it was determined upon. The pretended letter from Louis XVI. written from the Temple, to request the retreat of

the armies, never existed. This is ascertained by Clery's Journal. The courier from London, supposed to be charged with a similar commission, is a still more improbable story. England has been often accused, and always without the least proof, of encouraging the revolutionary faction, which never had a more invariable or more formidable enemy than that country; but even supposing, against all truth, that in 1792 the English government, swayed by politics so narrow and barbarous, had desired a continuance of the troubles that agitated France, till she was so weakened, that she could no longer be a formidable rival; and that this motive had induced them to propose to the duke of Brunswick, or to the king of Prussia, to draw off his army, is it probable that that brave monarch, who daily exposed his life like a common soldier, that he might have the glory of being the deliverer of Louis XVI. and of France, would not have rejected with indignation so scandalous a proposition? Can it be imagined that the duke of Brunswick would have consented to sully the most honourable military career with so disgraceful an action? As for the negociation opened with Dumourier, I have already stated the object of it; it certainly had no connection with the retreat of the Prussian army, and it cannot be better proved than by the manner in which the negociation was broken off. There was the greater reason for hoping that it would succeed, as five months before, Dumourier, then in the ministry, had sent a person of the name of Benoist, formerly employed in the police office, to general Heymann, with a proposal to deliver up the king of France at any place that should be agreed upon. This proposal was communicated to M. de Bischofswerder, who, after taking the king of Prussia's orders, answered, that nothing could be done in the matter till the armies were on the frontiers of France. That time was arrived, and certainly it was not to be expected that Dumourier, when a general, should consider as dishonourable, proposals he had himself made when a minister. It was more natural to presume that he had been anxious to obtain the command, that he might be the more able to execute the plan he had conceived.

'I shall say no more respecting the retreat of the duke of Brunswick; I believe I have sufficiently proved that he was compelled to it by irresistible necessity. There can therefore remain no reasonable doubt as to his motives. It is not easy to point out all the causes to which the disasters of this campaign are to be attributed: one of the principal, and perhaps the most fatal of the whole, was the extreme confidence of success. It was imagined that the combined armies would meet with no resistance; that all the fortresses would open their gates to them; that as soon as they had passed the frontiers, the royalists, the malcontents, and French deserters would join them by thousands, and that they would find immense supplies and resources in the country. So convinced was the emperor of this, that he had not hesitated to reduce about 60,000 men of the number of troops he was to furnish, and to send the others without heavy artillery. The neglect of the arrangements relative to provisions and military supplies, the manifesto with ridiculous threats, which was preferred to that proposed by Louis XVI. through Mallet-du-Pan, and the delay of opening the campaign for more than two months, were the consequences of the same illusions. The days required for marching to Paris had

been calculated, with a firm persuasion that there could be no obstacle to stop the armies on the way.

'These first errors were the more serious, because, had the duke of Brunswick's army been prepared to enter France at the time when the outrages of the 20th of June excited a general indignation against the Jacobins, and against the assembly; and had he announced by his manifesto, that the powers, justly provoked to take up arms, by the factious who prevailed in France, had no intention whatever to make war against the country; that no idea of invasion or of conquest had induced the march of their armies, which were destined to protect the worthy French, and enable them to prevent the king and his family from being exposed to fresh outrages from the brigands; he might have gained the support of the majority of the inhabitants of the provinces through which he would have marched, and have everywhere secured abundant resources. The French armies, too weak to have resisted, would have fled before him, and a great number of deserters would have augmented his army, whose approach, concurring with M. de la Fayette's conduct to the legislative body, would have spread a timely alarm throughout the capital, and in all probability have decided the counter-revolution. The misfortune of not having taken the advantage of so favourable an occasion, might still have been repaired, if the duke of Brunswick had had at his command 60,000 men more, with a sufficient quantity of heavy artillery, and the military supplies he had required. He would not then have been obliged to wait nearly a month for the arrival of general Clerfaye, of the Hessian troops, and of those commanded by prince Hohenloe. He would, on the contrary, have made himself master of all the fortresses before the 26th of August, and marched to Châlons, driving before him, or cutting to pieces Dumourier's little ill-conditioned army, which Kellerman and Beurnonville had not yet joined. Being master of that town, and of all the magazines of the French army kept there, the duke of Brunswick would have been able to march to Paris, where he would have arrived, without any obstacle, in the beginning of September, with an immense army in the best condition.

'The French princes and emigrants have been accused, with great asperity, of having caused all the disasters of this campaign, by deceiving the powers, in respect to the disposition of the country, with solemn assurances that were not supported, and with informations declared to be positive, but which the event proved to be unfounded. This charge is unjust. I was then in France, and no one had it more in his power to be exactly informed of the disposition of the country. It is certain, that after the 10th of August the assembly, governed and protected by the commune of Paris, had no other adherents, no other support in the provinces, than the Jacobin clubs and some thousands of vagabonds and worthless fellows, who, under the denomination of *patriots* and *sans-culottes*, were breaking open the prisons, pillaging property, and committing murder. The rest of the nation, thunderstruck at all the crimes that were perpetrated, saw with indignation the supreme authority and all the powers of government in the hands of the vilest rabble, and sincerely wished, not for a return of the abuses, or even of all the institutions of the old system, but the re-establishment of order and of the legitimate power of the king, whose

dreadful situation inspired the greatest interest in nineteen out of twenty of the inhabitants of the provinces, and inclined them to revolt against the prevailing tyranny. There is no doubt, that if at that time the princes and emigrants, declaring, as they did, intentions conformable to the general wish, had appeared at the head of an army sufficiently formidable to dispel the fears of those who should support them, they would have been joined every day by immense numbers of volunteers, and by a great part of the French troops of the line.' Vol. vii. P. 475.

The battle of Jemappe—the first pitched engagement between the antagonist armies, and by far the most important of the campaign—is hurried over with blamable rapidity. We are only informed that such a battle was actually fought, and presented with Dumourier's brief statement of its termination. We are not told precisely the number of troops on either side—we know nothing of its plan—nothing of the loss sustained—nothing of the causes that decided it in favour of the French, although it was an event of the utmost moment to the republicans, and contributed, more than any transaction which had yet occurred, to give stability to their party. But M. Bertrand is a statesman, it may be observed, and no warrior. And yet the celebrated question, whether England or France commenced the late war, together with the correspondence between lord Grenville and M. Chauvelin, and other documents upon which that question reposes, are passed over with as indecisive and unsatisfactory a brevity, as the account of the battle of Jemappe; and neither Mr. Marsh nor Mr. Belsham would have gained any thing by postponing their diatribes upon this subject, 'till they had obtained possession of the present work. All we can collect is, that the disposition—perhaps the firm determination—of the British ministry, to espouse the cause of the king, contributed, like the violent manifesto of the duke of Brunswick, in no small degree to accelerate his fate.—The life of Louis XVI. might unquestionably have been spared, if the cabinets of Europe had been possessed of common prudence. The unfortunate monarch had warm but injudicious friends: he fell a sacrifice, rather to the intemperance of his allies, than to the ferocity of his enemies; and we have no hesitation in asserting, that, if the same transaction were to recur, it would be marked by a very different kind of interference.

Our readers will be surprised to find, that, in the debate which preceded the decree of the king's death, the only man who is deemed worthy of praise by M. Bertrand is Thomas Paine. Our author shall speak for himself.

'The well-known Thomas Paine, who owed his deputation to the

national convention to the seditious extravagance of his republican principles, voted for the king's confinement during war, and for banishment at the return of the peace. In this sitting he gave his vote with much more earnestness than any one of his collegues in favour of delay. "I very sincerely regret," said he, "the part which was yesterday adopted by the convention with regard to the punishment by death; I have the advantage of some experience in subjects of this nature: it is almost twenty years since I engaged in the cause of liberty, by contributing to accomplish the revolution of the United States of America. My language has always been the language of liberty and humanity. Experience has taught me, that nothing so much exalts the spirit of a nation as the union of these two principles in all circumstances. I know that the public mind throughout France, and especially in Paris, has been heated and irritated by the dangers to which the country has been exposed: but if we look forward towards that period in which those dangers and the irritation they have produced shall be forgotten, then we shall be able to perceive, that the very transaction which to our present view bears the semblance of an act of justice, will then appear as a deed of vengeance. My anxiety for the cause of France is now converted into an anxiety for her honour; and should it be reserved for me, after my return to America, to write the history of the French revolution, I would much rather have to record a thousand errors proceeding from a regard to humanity, than a single one inspired by too severe a principle of justice. France has at this time but one ally, the United States of America; and this ally is the only nation that can furnish her with naval stores; for the northern powers, which have commonly supplied them, are, or very soon will be, at war with her: besides it most unfortunately happens that the object of the present discussion is regarded in the United States as their best friend, as the parent of their liberty. I am able to assure you that his execution will spread an universal affliction among them, and you have it now in your power to spare your best friends so much sorrow. If I could speak the French language, I would at your bar present a petition in the name of my American brethren for the delay of the execution of Louis."

'The reading of this speech, which had been translated from the English, was often interrupted by violent murmurs: it was pretended that this could not be the opinion of Thomas Paine; that his translator had betrayed him instead of translating his sentiments; but a deputy declared that he had read the original in the hands of Paine, and that the French was a faithful translation. Hence it must be recorded, to the eternal shame of this assembly, that Thomas Paine, who had long wandered in the fanaticism of the most violent democratic principles, proved himself the wisest, the most humane, the boldest, in a word, the most innocent among them.' Vol. viii. P. 390.

Despicable as this man has made himself in his own country, by his wild rêveries upon government, and his blasphemies upon religion, it is some satisfaction to us, at least, to perceive that nothing could be found in the shape of an Englishman, or possessing a single drop of English blood, which was base enough to countenance so diabolical a trans-

action. Our author thus proceeds with his account of the sitting.

'Many measures of delay were proposed: one till the ratification of the constitution by the people; another till peace should take place; and a third till the territory of the republic should be invaded by the enemy. Barrere combated all these propositions in a long speech, tending to prove that the first was dangerous, the next impolitic and Machiavelian, and the last barbarous. "I know not," said he, "any procedure more cruel, more inhuman, than to suspend a sword over the head of a man, and to tell him, at each movement of the enemy's forces—*Now your head falls.* No, I cannot consider him as a legislator, who would thus constrain a condemned criminal to drink the cup of death at long repeated draughts."

'It no doubt appeared to him a much wiser and a much more humane plan, to have him executed in twenty-four hours, as Marat had proposed. He concluded with moving that the question of delay should be determined by a call of votes. The assembly decreed that this should be proceeded upon immediately, and that each member should answer plainly and simply by *Aye* or *No*. Out of 690 voters, 310 voted for delay, and 380 against it.

'After the proclamation of the result of the votes, Cambaceres read a motion for a decree, which, with some amendments, was adopted in these words:

"A notification of the decree which pronounces death against Louis Capet shall be sent instantly to the executive council.

"The executive council shall be charged to notify the decree to Louis in the course of the day, and to cause it to be executed within twenty-four hours after the notification; and shall enforce whatever measures of general safety and police may appear necessary to them for the furtherance of the execution. They shall give an account of their proceedings to the convention.

"The mayor and municipal officers of Paris shall be enjoined to suffer Louis to communicate with his family, and to have with him such priests as he may desire to attend him in his last moments."

'It was three o'clock in the morning when this fatal sitting rose.' Vol. viii. p. 394.

The heroic conduct of the king, from the moment he was informed of his fate till he mounted the awful scaffold, is almost a verbal copy from Clery's Journal, of which we have formerly given an account, and the accuracy of which cannot be doubted, as it was afterwards attested by Madame Royale herself. Our author concludes his Annals with the following reflexions, in the greater part of which we most heartily unite.

'The French revolution is an awful lesson both to sovereigns and subjects. May the instruction it conveys not be lost to the human race, who have purchased it at the price of so much blood; nor to France, which it has plunged into so much guilt! May it teach kings, that benevolence, piety, and all the mild and amiable virtues which

can adorn a throne, are not the qualities the most effectual for its support! Justice and prudence to command, vigour and firmness in exacting obedience, are the only virtues by which a sovereign can maintain his authority, and which can effectually secure him against the dangers of a revolution.

'May the people, admonished by our calamities, learn to regard the government under which they are born as their most invaluable property; as the surest protection of every thing that is dear to them! May the experience of all ages, and of all nations, convince them, that there never existed a government free from abuses; that those to which they are accustomed are the easiest to support. Let them be taught, that those ambitious, wicked, or mad persons, who, under the specious pretext of reforming abuses, shall propose a change in their government, will ever prove their most dangerous enemies. It is to their insidious doctrines and diabolical machinations that France may impute the horrible events and innumerable calamities which overwhelm and disgrace her.

'How ought she now to abhor those outrageous apostles of liberty and the sovereignty of the people, who have never been able nor inclined to produce any other result from their doctrines than licentiousness and anarchy! How ought she to abhor those pretended restorers of the rights of man, who with impunity, have violated and trodden under foot the most sacred laws of humanity!' Vol. viii. P. 437.

We have already observed, that vol. IX. and last, consists almost entirely of an appendix; and that, for the greater benefit of the *English reader*, the papers of which it is composed are all printed in their original *French*. Many of them are important, as documents of reference, but none sufficiently interesting to be transcribed in this place. To this voluminous appendix, is added a supplement, containing a few *observations* on M. Mallet-du-Pan's Critical Remarks on M. Bertrand's Annals, as they appeared in No. 33 of a periodical publication of the former gentleman, entitled The British Mercury. These *observations* need not detain us: the *Remarks* themselves were but of small and temporary importance. The volume closes with several letters which passed between our author and Mr. Fox, in consequence of the latter's having made what M. Bertrand conceived an *inaccurate* quotation from his Annals, in a debate in the house of commons. Upon a careful perusal of the passage referred to, we cannot perceive the inaccuracy of which M. Bertrand complains: the *spirit* of the text is most assuredly with Mr. Fox; and we can only allow to the author the merit of extorting a mere *verbal* difference.

ART. VI.—*The Arabian Nights. Translated by the Reverend Edward Forster. With Engravings, from Pictures by Robert Smirke, R.A. 5 Vols. 8vo. 3l. Boards.* Miller. 1802.

WE have more than once intimated a doubt, that no genuine *complete* copy of *The Thousand and One Nights*—for by that name these tales are circulated through the East—at present exists; and, from the result of Mr. Forster's inquiries relative to them, we are not inclined to relinquish our suspicions. It was once pretty generally understood, that they constituted the manuscript of Arabian tales, purchased at Mr. Wortley Montague's sale by Dr. White; in respect to which, Mr. Forster professes his having procured *the most authentic intelligence.*

'They were afterwards' (he says) 'transferred to Mr. Scott, as mentioned by him at the end of his volume of Translations, published in 1800. And I believe, they will soon be deposited in the Bodleian library, at Oxford. They contain many other tales besides those, which M. Galland has translated; but most of those, which he has omitted, are not near so entertaining as the tales he translated, although there are some equally so. In a work indeed of so great an extent, equality of excellence could not perhaps be expected. Certainly not, when we consider the tales as the work of different authors. It is indeed the opinion of a gentleman of very extensive Oriental knowledge, that the Arabian Nights originally consisted of not more perhaps than a fourth part of the manuscript purchased by Dr. White; but that writers in various parts of the East, where the Mussulman religion prevailed, have added to them so as to complete the thousand and one nights, which I believe to be the division of those Tales, formerly in the possession of Dr. White.' Vol. i. p. lix.

For this belief, however, no particular reason is assigned. We apprehend, indeed, that not more than a fourth part is translated by Galland of the *Thousand and One:* at the same time, we cannot but think that such was their primary designation, whether composed by a single person, or by a junto of contemporary writers. The specimen afforded in the first and second volumes of the French translation strengthens the idea, that such was originally their numerical division. A uniform character, bearing the stamp of considerable antiquity, pervades these tales: no difference in the mode of composition—no allusion to modern incidents or modern customs, is discernible in either;—circumstances highly improbable, had they been composed at different periods, and in different regions, unless (and the idea is not very probable) the most ancient only fell into M. Galland's possession. In a country where the preser-

vation of literary productions must depend—as that of the Arabian Nights did—on transcription; and, in its ruder districts, on verbal recital, not only its liability to corruption, through the carelessness of transcribers, but its danger of mutilation likewise, must be increased in proportion to its antiquity. We cannot, therefore, be surprised at the variation which exists in some copies of these tales, and the irretrievable loss, in all probability, of others. In fact, no proof, nor shadow of a proof, can be produced, of their having been written at different periods, or in different countries.

Though some of the tales, in Mr. Scott's manuscript, agree with those translated by M. Galland, we are well assured, that no Oriental scholar, who has inspected it, will assert that such is the case in regard to the majority: nor will he deny that they stand totally distinct and unconnected; while, in those of Galland, we find a regular system adopted, and one story, by the intermediate dialogues between the sultan and his ladies, leading us to another. These dialogues—however unpleasing and inartificial to the European reader—appear an essential part of the original work. We conceive, therefore, that they are requisite to establish the authenticity of an Oriental copy—for we know not by what other mean it can be decidedly ascertained. But these breaks or divisions do not occur in Mr. Scott's manuscript; nor, as we have said, is any kind of arrangement discernible in this collection. Though we cannot therefore allow its having the least pretension to be styled a genuine copy of *The Thousand and One Nights*, it is not impossible that some of the stories it contains, though they do not correspond with those in Galland, may have once formed a part of the original performance; and that their connecting colloquies have been omitted through the laziness of transcribers. Their claim, however, must depend on vague conjecture; and, in all probability, the manuscript is merely a compilation—a kind of Oriental novelist's magazine, in which some popular romances of the Richardsons, Fieldings, and Smollets, of the East, are, without discrimination, blended together. We are informed that the name of their transcriber—or rather compiler, in our opinion—was Omar al Siftee; but at what period he lived, or where he resided, it does not appear; and it is now impossible to ascertain where Mr. Montague procured the manuscript, or to acquire any further intelligence concerning it.

Mr. Forster proceeds to tell us, that, in the manuscript

—'which is in the possession of Dr. Russell, the number of nights

is about two hundred only; and it is also a doubt, whether the manuscripts either in the Vatican or in the Royal Library at Paris are complete.' Vol. i. p. lx.

That this copy is genuine, so far as it goes, may be presumed, from its containing the inartificial but authenticating colloquies of Schahriar and Scheherazade; and we conclude those in the Vatican, and at Paris, have the same distinguishing characteristics.

'It is the opinion of most Oriental scholars, that no two copies will be found exactly to correspond, even in the original contracted work, and still less so in the more enlarged manuscripts.' Vol. i. p. lx.

Such variations must naturally be expected in a popular work of fancy, widely circulated, and preserved for a considerable number of ages by tradition and transcription. We do not well understand what is meant by the *original contracted work*, unless it imply the stories translated by M. Galland, and which we indeed conceive to be the only indubitable collection of those which once formed a part of *The Thousand and One Nights*, that ever issued from an European press. Nor can we apprehend what is intended by the *more enlarged manuscripts*, unless it mean such as that in Mr. Scott's possession, which is, in our opinion, an Oriental miscellany.

'There have also been four volumes of tales published, as the continuation of the Arabian Nights, and which M. Galland did not translate, although the Arabic manuscript of the whole, as the French translator states, was brought over, and placed in the library of the king of France at the same time. This latter French work has since been published in English. These, however, are universally believed to be spurious, and the work of an European. Abundant evidence might be given of this, were I inclined to enter into the question. I shall only mention one instance.—An inhabitant of the country, where the fact happened, is made to express the greatest astonishment at an appearance the most common. "What a thick infectious mist! How could it arise from dry sand, destitute of water! It is a very extraordinary phenomenon!" The man, who wrote this, could never have been in Arabia, nor even have consulted modern travellers, or he would have known, that this appearance is most frequent.' Vol. i. p. xii.

A beautiful poem, translated by professor Carlyle, from an early Arabian writer (and others of the same character embellish this performance), is adduced to confirm the observation. Most of the tales, indeed, in the supposed *Continuation*, bear intrinsic marks of having been manufactured in Europe—

'True Indian handkerchiefs from Spitalfields.'

In the first story (and we shall notice no other), where Haroun Alraschid assumes the title of *Il Bondocani*—a name very ungenial to the Arabic idiom—he professes, with much humility, an abhorrence to ceremonious respect, whereby he was kept in ignorance of the truth; and insists that his courtiers should avoid it hereafter in their intercourse with him. Would the author of the genuine Arabian tales have attributed such a sentiment to 'the commander of the faithful,' the most despotic of princes, who always exacted from those around him—except in the hours of caprice and relaxation—the profoundest reverence, the most implicit submission? His submission to reproof, and his sentimental reflexions, in the same part of the story, are no less ungenial to the vicar of Mohammed. In the few colloquies introduced between these stories—with the intent, we may suppose, to preserve some resemblance to the original work—we find, in two or three instances, the sultan and his fair companions discussing the merits or defects of the tale previously recited, with as much discrimination and sagacity—'*absit invidia verbo*'—as if they had belonged to a corps of monthly critics. But in the genuine work, the good sultan never discovers any powers of investigation: he merely expresses a curiosity to know how the story will conclude, or his satisfaction at its admirable termination.

As, however, contrary to Mr. Forster's statement, we understand that some gentlemen of respectability, formerly residents in Asia, have asserted, that to their knowledge these stories are of Oriental extraction, we will admit that the greater part (we cannot allow the whole) may have been founded on legends circulated in the East; at the same time we are morally certain, that the superstructure is commonly according to the rules of European architecture. That some of them are interesting, and display a considerable degree of fancy, we are likewise ready to grant; but they bear as little resemblance to the *naïveté* and simplicity of the tales translated by Galland, as a Rambler of Johnson does to a Spectator of Addison.

Notwithstanding the incongruities and absurdities they frequently exhibit, and the inelegant garb in which we have been used to contemplate them, we find something so fascinating, so powerfully arresting our attention, that few people, but those of the most saturnine habits, can enter into the adventures they detail without being interested, nor desist from the perusal without reluctance.

Mr. Forster, perhaps, will scarcely thank us for the ungracious and disqualifying manner in which we commence our eulogy: *that* which he bestows is of a very superior

nature; and we shall submit it to the reader, to acquiesce in its justice, or make what deductions he pleases.

'Writers who blend moral instruction and useful information with amusing tales, have some merit. And when a work even does more than this, when it contains a correct delineation, and gives a detailed account, of the peculiar manners, customs, and modes of life, of a part of the globe, in which some of the most singular nations of the earth once flourished, its merit is infinitely great, and it deserves the perusal and attention of every one. And such a work, in the fullest extent, is the Arabian Nights; which is more descriptive of the people, customs, and conduct of eastern countries during the middle ages, than any other existing work; and, as far as other writers or travellers have investigated these subjects, so far have the correctness and authenticity of this work been confirmed.' Vol. i. p. x.

In further support of the merits of this favourite performance, he adduces the authority of Mr. Hole, who, 'with much ingenuity in his remarks on the voyages of Sindbad, has accounted for, and sometimes justified, the most singular and extraordinary circumstances.' Such a mode of illustration, in his opinion, 'would also lead to interesting discoveries, relative to the progress of ideas from one nation to another. A scientific translator would not only be induced to trace many of these stories to a classic origin, but likewise to retrace some of the classic fictions to their primitive eastern derivation.'

We heartily wish such a plan had been executed with taste and industry; and doubt not that many passages, apparently grotesque and extravagant, would be found, like those commented on by Mr. Hole, erected on classical authority, or exemplifying the customs and explaining the long-established traditions of the East. In imitation of that gentleman, the translator has favoured us with a few notes which materially tend to elucidate obscure passages. The following illustrates one, which, in the former translation, appears truly absurd:

'In the story of the Merchant and Genius, vol. i. page 37, the latter says, "I have sworn to kill thee, as thou hast killed my son; for whilst thou wast throwing about the stones of the dates, thou hadst eaten, my son passed by, and one of them struck him in the eye and caused his death." Now this, at first sight, seems a singular, if not a ridiculous thing; but even this has its foundation in an eastern custom. There are accounts, (and I speak upon the authority of Warren Hastings, Esq. than whom no one is better acquainted with Oriental manners and history; and whose name is almost reverenced throughout that quarter of the world,) there are accounts of people having been killed by date stones, which were shot at them in a particular manner with both hands. Those persons, who are in the

habit of doing this, will send the stone with such velocity as to give a most violent blow. And it is in this manner, that prisoners are sometimes put to death: a man sits down at a little distance from the object, he intends to destroy, and then attacks him by repeatedly shooting at him with the stone of the date, thrown from his two forefingers; and in this way puts an end to his life.—The former translation, by calling these stones, the "shells" of the date, besides totally mistaking the fact, dates having no shells but only stones, makes complete nonsense of the tale.' Vol. i. P. xxi.

'In the History of Codadad, vol. iv. page 158, there is a custom, similar to that mentioned in the New Testament, of wiping the feet with the hair, as a mark of respect, where a woman, who was a sinner, wipes the feet of our Saviour. Luke, chap. vii. ver. 38, and John xii. v. 3. Thus in the story, "O, prince, what is there we can do for you? If either prayers or knowledge could restore you to life, we would wipe your feet with our white beards, we would address you in speeches of wisdom: but the King of the Universe has taken you away for ever."

'Again also in the History of Schemselnihar and the prince of Persia, when the former was told, that the caliph was coming to visit her, she ordered "the paintings on silk, which were in the garden, to be taken down." In the same manner are paintings, or hangings, used in the Old Testament, where it is said, "The women wove hangings for the grove." 2 Kings, xxiii. v. 7.' Vol. i. P. xxv.

Were the stories throughout commented upon after the manner of the preceding notes, which we have selected for their brevity—even without that acuteness of observation and extent of knowledge which Mr. Hole has bestowed on the voyages of Sindbad—the Arabian Nights would no longer be considered as a work of amusement alone.

It is needless perhaps to mention, that the present translation is not from any Oriental manuscript, but from M. Galland's French copy; with which, by the testimony of Mr. Hastings—a most competent judge, and an admirer of the original work—we ought to be fully satisfied. The following extract is given of a letter from him:

'M. Galland has selected the best of the tales, and rendered those, which he has given us, if not quite faithfully, yet with the costume and manners perfectly correct, and the language both elegant and Oriental. Our English translation of his work is mean and coarse beyond criticism.' Vol. i. P. xliv.

That such is the case, notwithstanding its popularity, we must allow; and we are pleased to find it superseded, as it soon must be, by the present version, which is in general executed with neatness and precision. Some defects might be pointed out; but they are not many in number, nor of-

fensive in their nature. A short specimen may not be disagreeable, particularly the following account of Egypt (a country now interesting to the British reader), as it was in the middle ages. We scruple not to profess our conviction of its accuracy, though somewhat highly coloured, at the period when the story to which it belongs is supposed to have taken place. It affords a mortifying contrast to its present degraded and miserable state.

"Let people say what they will," cried my father, "he, who has not seen Egypt, has not seen the greatest wonder in the world. The earth is all gold, that is to say, so fertile, that it enriches the inhabitants beyond conception. All the women enchant one either by their beauty or their agreeable manners. If you mention the Nile, what river can be more delightful? What water was ever so pure and delicious? The mud, that remains after its overflowings, enriches the ground, which produces, without any trouble, a thousand times more than other countries do with all the labour, that it costs to cultivate them. Hear what a poet, who was obliged to quit Egypt, addressed to the natives of that country: 'Your Nile heaps riches on you every day; it is for you alone, that it travels so far; alas! at leaving you, my tears will flow as abundantly as its waters; you will continue to enjoy its pleasures, whilst I, contrary to my inclinations, am condemned to deprive myself of them.'

"If," continued my father, "you cast your eyes on the island, which is formed by the two largest branches of the Nile, what a variety of verdure will gratify them! What a beautiful enamel of all kinds of flowers! What a prodigious quantity of cities, towns, canals, and a thousand other pleasing objects! If you turn on the other side, looking towards Ethiopia, how many different subjects for admiration! I can only compare the verdure of so many meadows, watered by the various canals in the island, to the brilliancy of emeralds set in silver *. Is not Cairo the largest, the richest, the most populous city in the universe? How magnificent the edifices, as well private as public! If you go to the pyramids, you are lost in astonishment; you remain speechless at the sight of those enormous masses of stone, which lose their lofty summits in the clouds: you are forced to confess, that the Pharaohs, who employed so many men and such immense riches in the construction of them, surpassed all the monarchs, who have succeeded them, not only in Egypt, but over the whole world, in magnificence and invention, by leaving monuments so worthy of them. These monuments, which are so ancient, that the learned are at a loss to fix the period of their erection, still brave the ravages of time; and will remain for ages. I pass over in silence the maritime towns of the kingdom of Egypt, such as Damietta, Rosetta, and Alexandria, where so many nations

* Gaunt, in Richard the Second, applies the same exuberance of panegyric to his native country, which he styles—

'This precious stone set in the silver sea.'

Rev.

traffic for various kinds of grain and stuffs, and a thousand other things for the comfort and pleasure of mankind. I speak of it from knowing the place; I spent some years of my youth there, which I shall ever esteem the happiest of my life." Vol. ii. p. 171.

These volumes are neatly printed, and illustrated by some spirited and well-executed engravings.

ART. VII.—*The Principles of Surgery, in 2 Vols. Volume the First; Of the ordinary Duties of the Surgeon, containing the Principles of Surgery, as they relate to Wounds, Ulcers, and Fistulas; Aneurisms, and wounded Arteries, Fractures of the Limbs, and the Duties of the Military and Hospital Surgeon. Volume Second; A System of Surgical Operations, containing the Principles of Surgery, as they relate to Surgical Diseases and Operations, as Lithotomy, Trepan, Hernia, Hydrocele, Amputation, &c. By John Bell, Surgeon.* 4*to.* 4*l.* 4*s. Boards.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1801.

THOUGH we think a system of modern surgery a *desideratum* in the scientific department, yet we do not highly approve the publication of lectures, nor especially that splendid form of publication which keeps proper information from some of the lower classes of the profession. Lectures, in general, should be extemporaneous. The language of conversation fixes the attention both of the professor and student. The former can return to the subject with fresh elucidations, place it in different views, enliven the drier discussions with entertaining anecdotes or appropriate cases, and relieve the attention by suitable digressions. When, however, we peruse a work in the closet, these little reliefs are misplaced: we bring our calm undivided attention to it; and whatever calls us from the chain of reasoning, is from the purpose, and consequently disgusts. Oral instruction is necessarily also more diffuse; and a short-hand-writer can distinguish what has been previously studied from what is truly extemporaneous, by the greater difficulty which he finds in taking down the former. What therefore appears well compacted in the one, is tediously diffuse in the other.

We early found reason to dislike the present work, from its splendor and prolixity. The bulk appeared, in many respects, to be unreasonably augmented; and the substance was often as two grains of wheat in a bushel of chaff. We shall not carry the comparison further; but our author is well read in Shakspeare, and may supply the deficiency, if

he feel guilty*. The first lecture is on the duties of a surgeon; and we were well pleased to see our author reprobating the too common fondness for operations—those splendid exhibitions which some surgeons are unduly anxious to display. The idea of holding up the army, however, as almost the exclusive school of practice, we cannot but disapprove; and the studied concealment of the names of some of the best English surgeons appears invidious. Our author next treats of the doctrine of adhesion, expatiates on the cruel system of tents now exploded, and not likely again to be adopted; and sees, or suspects he sees, a connexion between the use of sympathetic powders and the modern practice. This leads him to a tedious and misplaced digression on these remedies; but, though we may admit, that, while the sword was bathed, the patient would not be tortured with improper dressings, yet the connexion is visionary, and the supposed revolution of little real importance, since tents were used for fifty years after the idle fancy of sympathy was rejected. The use of sutures certainly makes a part of the doctrine of adhesion; yet they were employed long before it was thought of. In a systematic view of the subject, they are properly united. The obstacles to adhesion are next mentioned; but the author 'fears that he cannot have recollected all the needful rules.' This is the language of a lecturer; it is disgraceful to the writer of a vast quarto.

The third and following lecture, are on ill-conditioned and complicated wounds; on ulcers, dressings, bandages, and the daily duties of a hospital surgeon. The greater part of the third lecture relates to the duties of military and naval surgeons only; nor are the directions essentially illustrated by coloured plates, as they represent sores, whose appearance would have been sufficiently elucidated by description, or by language, which is in general, in this part of the work, grossly disgusting. The cases are also narrated with a tedious minuteness; and the substance is often lost in a deluge of words.—Is necrosis, by the way, the usual meaning for 'the *generation* of a new bone to replace that which is spoiled?'—If we admit all these deductions, we may allow that the discourse contains some judicious remarks, which might, with propriety perhaps, have filled two or four *modern* octavo instead of forty-five quarto pages.

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* He has inserted, in a note, a singular criticism. He would read 'the *untented* woundings of a father's corse, &c.' instead of *untender*, as in the old copies; but, as a surgeon, he is *combating* the use of tents as highly cruel. The *untented* wound is consequently treated *gently*.

The subject of the next lecture is aneurysms and wounds of the arteries, and the first discourse on hæmorrhage. In this lecture, we are detained, for a long time, with all the superstitions magic of antiquity in stopping bleedings. It is truly entertaining, but greatly misplaced, either in a lecture, or a system of surgery. This leads to the modern methods of compression, tying, &c. which are well explained. The invention of the needle is attributed to Paré, whose life and persecutions are related at a disproportioned length. Mr. Bell proceeds to more important subjects, and speaks of the condition of the artery in aneurysm, and of the effects of ligatures, of wounds in the artery, and their different states; the effects of compression and other applications; the effects of ligatures and causes of the secondary hæmorrhage. On the latter subject, we shall select the author's sentiments, as more peculiarly his own, and as more compressed in his conclusion.

'I ascribe the most dangerous bleedings, both in amputation and in aneurism, to the ulceration of the great artery; some of the causes I hope I have explained to your satisfaction, and the practical conclusion which I would deduce from this doctrine is of no small importance; it has relation more or less direct, to every great operation; and therefore reflect, I beseech you, on those facts and principles, and judge for yourselves. It is my opinion, that a great artery never can be safe while the ligature remains about it; for till it comes away, the artery cannot be said to have adhered, cannot be buried in granulations, nor supported by the surrounding flesh, cannot be out of danger of ulceration! Nor can a great artery ever be safe while it remains insulated, though surgeons seem to take a pleasure in seeing it lying fair along in the cavity of an aneurismal sac! but they should recollect, that if the artery lies more within their reach of operation it is also surer to need it; being thus insulated, stripped of its cellular substance, deprived of its nutritious vessels, the part which is included betwixt the two ligatures must gangrene; the parts under the two ligatures often, in place of adhering, will ulcerate, the ulceration, in place of stopping when the ligatures fall off, will continue, and as the artery is an insensible and firm part, entering slowly into disease, it ulcerates slowly, and bursts only on the tenth, twelfth, or fifteenth day. We have reason then to believe that the oldest practice is the best; that whenever a great artery is tied, it should be cut across betwixt the two ligatures, that it may shrink and bury itself among the surrounding flesh. We know two important facts which direct us to this bold practice: First, That wherever we do tie an artery with two ligatures, the intermediate piece is inevitably destroyed, and it were surely more prudent to cut the part across with the knife, than to allow it to be thus slowly destroyed by ligatures, with danger of the ulceration extending along the artery thus stretched out, and held insulated. Secondly, We know that though we are never alarmed with the femoral artery bursting in amputation where the ligatures come easily away, yet in aneurism our

ligatures remain too long, they seldom loosen till the twelfth or fifteenth day, and there have been few operations in which secondary hæmorrhages do not make part of the narrative of the case.

'I think that, by cutting across the artery, tied in aneurism, we should put it nearly in the same condition with that tied upon the face of an amputated stump. In operating in any considerable aneurism, then I would be careful to cleanse the sac thoroughly of its putrid blood; I would not merely open the general fascia of the limb, but dissect carefully that peculiar sheath which encloses the great artery, veins, and nerve; I would tie the artery clear of the nerves, which, being indestructible, hold the ligatures too long; and I would have it clear also of muscular flesh, which, while it detains the ligature, prevents it operating fully upon the artery: The bare artery I would tie with moderate firmness, with a ligature smaller than is commonly used, and as near as possible to the sound parts. I would not insulate it with pieces of leather or cork, nor lay compresses along its course, but cut it across, that it might shrink among the surrounding flesh. In tying a great artery, I would take every precaution that might ensure the effect of the ligature upon the bare artery, and enable me to draw it early away; and I would be especially careful to prevent my ligature being embarrassed with the surrounding parts.' P. 237.

Mr. Bell's great object, in his instructions respecting ligatures, is to prevent the nerves, and so much of the neighbouring substance as can be excluded, from being surrounded by the thread. The artery is then to be suffered to shrink into the surrounding parts, which, by their union, will contribute to its support, and not to be kept separate till the suppuration of the extremity comes on.

Another cause of secondary hæmorrhage is from inosculating branches, which leads Mr. Bell to his sixth discourse on inosculation. On this subject, he speaks with a warmth not uncommon in this work; and represents the inosculation of arteries as so complete, that even the aorta may be destroyed below its arch, and the circulation maintained by the inosculations of the mammary and epigastric arteries on the abdomen. A singular fact of the effect of these inosculations is indeed adduced; but poor is the logic which can argue that a circumstance will always happen, from what has once occurred. We have seen patients die of gangrene, after the operation for the aneurysm in the arteries of the extremities, the inosculation of whose branches are pointed out, with the most sanguine dependence on their power in continuing the circulation after the trunks are destroyed. The inosculations on every part where they are of importance are developed; but we well know from experience, that, though the circulation be sometimes carried on by the branches, and curious cases of this occurrence are preserved, the inosculating arteries more fre-

quently fail in performing this office. It is properly remarked, that there are no peculiar inosculating arteries; but that all unite, and may, by dilatation, when wanted, perform the most important offices for each other. This certainly implies a retrograde motion; but it only exists in vessels where the direct course is cut off.

'The power of inosculation knows no limits, but, like adhesion, is perfect in all parts of the body wherever vessels exist! no part of the body is lost for want of adhesion; neither can any part be lost for want of inosculation. Who could have believed that a bone could adhere to a bone! Who could have believed that the cornea, when cut open in extracting the cataract, or the crystalline humour when displaced in couching, could adhere to the surrounding parts? Who could have believed that the carotids could be stopped up! the aorta itself interrupted! the vena cava quite obliterated! the thoracic duct oppressed, so as no longer to transmit the lymph, without life being endangered? Who could have believed that the femoral artery, and all its branches on the fore part of the limb, might be obliterated, without the limb falling into gangrene? Surely I am entitled to that broad and universal conclusion to which I have laid claim.

'This fear of interrupting the great arteries proceeded merely from ignorance of pathology. Reason and experience concur to prove that it is safe; and I feel myself entitled to lay down, at the conclusion of this discourse, a rule, the very reverse of that with which it began. After these proofs, the questions about inosculations may be blotted out altogether. Wounds of the axillary artery, like wounds of the femoral artery, are often dangerous from secondary bleeding, but never fatal from the want of inosculations. We may tie the greatest arteries confidently, wherever they are wounded without the trunk of the body. We should tie as boldly the arteries at the groin or in the axilla, as in the lesser branches going down the thigh or arm. Accidents (as we are in all our operations at the mercy of accident) may undoubtedly prevent our achieving a cure! A limb bruised with a waggon-wheel, or wounded with a great ball, cannot be so easily saved, as when the artery alone is wounded by the stab of a knife or sword. Yet although the accidents and dangers of gangrene were multiplied tenfold! this common way of cutting off the thigh, or amputating the arm at the shoulder joint, should be forsaken; it is bad doctrine, and cruel practice.' P. 310.

This is declamation only, resting on isolated cases in many of the circumstances, with the experience of ages in general opposed to it. Tying the artery, in certain emergencies, may perhaps be attempted; but we would warn the young inexperienced surgeon not to expect, in every instance, what may have happened in one; nor to place too great confidence in single events, the chance of whose recurrence is incalculable.

The seventh discourse is on the history and cause of aneurysms. This cause is violence; the irregular and extraor-

dinary exertion of the muscles, more conspicuous in the lower limbs, as their muscles are stronger; and less common in women, as their exertions are less violent. This we consider, however, as a partial view. Something must be attributed to the tension and strength of the arterial system, and something to causes that may accidentally weaken the coats in a particular part. We shall select a judicious and spirited *argumentum ad hominem*.

'You will perhaps say within yourselves, "What should we do, to acquit ourselves faithfully in so difficult a situation?"—Reflect much upon the history of your patient's disease, write it down, ponder upon it, compare it with the descriptions of authors, it is a disease in which you never need be hurried into any imprudent act. Remember how frequently arteries are burst, how slowly aneurism forms, and that when confined in a narrow cavity like the ham, or when buried under the thick muscles of the thigh, when the sac is old, and crammed with firm coagula of blood, aneurism may lose its pulsation. Do not forget this general rule of surgery, which I have ventured to lay down, "Allow no tumor to grow to a dangerous size:" If a tumor have its seat about the throat, near the carotid arteries, or under the angle of the jaw; if it be in the groin, in the thigh, in the cavity of the ham; and most especially if it be at once near a great artery, and a joint such as the knee, deal with it early, and you will often in the course of your practice have the happiness of preventing those afflicting cases which defy surgery.

'In this particular disease, first assure yourself of its nature, submit yourselves to the advice of your fellow surgeons, open the tumor early, but not like those ignorant men who are terrified at the sight of blood! When the coagula roll out, you may be assured that an artery will bleed in the end; when you have cleared out the blood and let go the tourniquet, you will see the artery; when you perceive that the main artery is wounded, the limb being still alive, you have reason to believe that the collateral arteries are enlarged and the limb safe, that you have but the common dangers of all such cases to encounter, viz. sloughing, fever, and weakness. When the artery is but a branch, as the tibial artery, you may tie it with the greater confidence; indeed, it is only when the joint is injured, or the bones carious, that you have to cut off the limb. When you see the mouth of a bleeding artery, you should, in general, tie it with the needle, for it lies deep; when you find no artery, but observe a slow hæmorrhagy from a vein, a piece of scraped lint is sufficient; when there is an oozing of blood from a deep part of the cavity, and from uncertain vessels, you may thrust down a piece of sponge.' P. 352.

The eighth discourse is on the condition of the aneurysmal limb, from which is deduced 'the safety or danger of the various operations for the cure of aneurysms.' The discourse commences with a description of the progress of aneurysmal tumors. It is animated and eloquent; but the natural cure, when by the pressure of the effused blood the artery is

obliterated, and the inosculating branches supply the circulation, is indeed rare. The practice of Guattani and others, who saved, in their own opinion, their patients, by compressing the tumor, and preserving the channel of the artery entire, only assisted this natural process. Every other plan has succeeded, in our author's opinion, in the same way; and his arguments, deduced from facts, merit very particular attention. He has certainly supported his opinion with great force, but perhaps with undue confidence, unquestionably too diffusely.

The danger of amputating aneurismal limbs is next explained, from the state of the inosculating arteries; and Mr. Hunter's method of operating, in the popliteal aneurysm, is commended, from its only imitating the natural process, *viz.* the obliteration of the arterial canal. One cause of the failure of the operation is, in Mr. Bell's opinion, insulating the tied ends of the artery. When tied, each end should, he thinks, be permitted to retract, and to bury itself in the muscular parts above and below. A more common cause is the loss of blood from the inosculating arteries, and gangrene from their fulness, as well as the discharge. An early operation is consequently advisable.

In the next discourse, the author explains the nature of the aneurysm formed over a wounded artery, and adds his 'rules of conduct for the operation.' He contends, we think, with reason, that the circulation, in either extremity, cannot be repressed by any compression on the arteries, above the clavicle, or in the groin. The rules of practice deserve attention.

In 'oblique wounds of the arteries,' our author advises enlarging the original wound, to reach the artery, instead of making a new incision, on a supposition of being able to fix on the spot where the wound may exist: this subject is also unreasonably expanded. The rules for stopping hæmorrhages from smaller arteries, we cannot abridge: many of them are, indeed, sufficiently obvious, and require not the pomp of words here employed to explain them.

What Mr. Bell calls 'aneurisms by anastomosis,' are those bloody tumors which occasionally appear in different parts of the surface, are distinguished by a pulsation, increase with every cause of increased circulation, lessen when the blood is evacuated by puncturing them, and again return. They are, in his opinion, a congeries of small arteries, with their attending veins enlarged, and anastomosing with each other. The only cure is extirpation; and the forty-six quarto pages of this volume give no information beyond this.

The third section of this verbose and bulky work is on

fractures; and the first discourse in this section (XII.) contains the history of the opinions and practices of the older surgeons. The callus is originally a yielding substance: if broken a second time, it will soon re-unite. Bandages are useless, if applied with a view to mould and shape the callus: nature will effect this, with little concern of ours; and to lay the leg straight, and confine the bones by splints tied with tapes, will be sufficient. In fractures of the thigh-bone, where, from the contraction of the muscles, the bones overlap, frequent extension is necessary.

The next subject is fracture of the hip-joint, which is introduced by the anatomy, physiology, and pathology, of the articulation, not without some unbecoming sneers at authors of credit who have had the misfortune of thinking differently from Mr. Bell. The whole mechanism of the thigh-bone and its socket is, however, explained clearly, though, perhaps, at more than sufficient length; after which, our author proceeds to the accidents to which it is liable. Luxation was, for a long time, supposed to be its only possible accident. A fracture of the neck of the bone was afterwards detected. Much controversy has been carried on; and it is now concluded, in the same manner as the young candidate decided the question, whether the earth moved round the sun, or *vice versâ*, *viz.* 'sometimes one way, sometimes the other.' To be serious:—The controversy, conducted with great acrimony, is at length placed on a very reasonable and obvious footing. No one can deny that the neck of the os femoris is sometimes broken, or that the head of the bone is, at others, thrown out of the acetabulum. In explaining the difficulty of union between the broken ends of the fractured neck of the femur, our author is somewhat embarrassed. He engages in a disquisition respecting the union of a broken patella; but this is clear gain; for it enables him to give a sly stroke at his namesake Benjamin Bell: it is unfortunate in another view; for he is obliged to declare that a complete re-union of the patella is almost impossible. If to render a broken patella equally serviceable with a sound one be a proof of complete re-union, it is *not* impossible. If the dispute be, whether the union be formed by osseous or by ligamentous matter, it is not worth a single line to contest the point. We know that fractures of the neck of the femur do not easily unite; and we think we perceive the reason; *viz.* strong muscles, acting at right angles, to prevent the ends of the bones from lying in apposition; and perhaps the disadvantage of the circulation, which is transverse, instead of being in the direction of the length of the fibres, may have a little influence. Violent pains are sometimes occasioned by bruises of the soft parts,

in consequence of falls; and these are judiciously discriminated. In the chapter on the scrofulous disease of the hip-joint, we meet with nothing in the remedies particularly new or interesting. The signs of the different kinds of luxations are explained at length; and the whole subject is illustrated by numerous engravings.

The discourse on the fracture of the thigh-bone is most unreasonably expanded, by an introduction of all the various machines of ancient and modern times, to obviate the contraction of the muscles, with the author's sneers and comments, of which he is not sparing. The modern mode of laying the limb easy is well known; and, after some days, the relaxation of the spasm admits of a gradual extension. The liberal use of opium assists this relaxation; and the modern surgeon succeeds better by following nature, than by a complication of all the mechanical powers.

The fifteenth discourse contains rules for the management of simple, compound, and gun-shot fractures, 'deduced from practice, and from the doctrines explained in the foregoing discourse.' We need not enlarge on this subject, as the general rules are sufficiently known, and our author does not materially add to them. Some omissions are, however, discoverable. Not the most inconsiderable of these are the posture of the patient in fractures of the lower extremities, and of the patella. In the former case, we perceive, he places the patient on his back, as his directions are adapted to this position, and he does not mention any change in the progress of the cure. In the rupture of the *tendo Achillis*, he advises that the foot be kept in a horizontal position. Compound fractures, from a gun-shot, are explained and treated very judiciously. They combine a fractured bone with shattered muscles whose texture is destroyed, filled with extraneous substances, to be discharged by suppuration.

Compound fractures are the next objects of attention; and their treatment is particularly detailed, according to the modern practice. When the joint is hereby distorted, much of Mr. Bell's promised success depends on a bold incision, where necessary, to reduce the dislocation. The whole is then managed in the way formerly directed; the supervening gangrene being chiefly superficial, and yielding to the usual remedies. Such is the event, in the best circumstances; but success, in such desperate situations, is not common; and amputation is commonly preferred, we think, with propriety. Our author discusses the question, and is of opinion that it cannot be decided generally, but from a view of the particular cases. There are some in which we may even regret success, as we leave a painful, uncomfortable, and useless limb. We may, on the other hand, occa-

sionally lament our precipitancy. We lately succeeded beyond expectation, in a case of this kind apparently desperate, the greater part of the wound healing by adhesion, the bones uniting with little inflammation, and with very slight exfoliations. But, should a general rule be necessary, we would say, in considerable compound fractures, with dislocations—amputate.

The present is, on the whole, a work of pompous promise and of imposing splendor. It is addressed to army and navy surgeons, and to students; yet, in a bulk little adapted to their situations, and of a price unsuitable to the pockets, of any of them—filled with history, with cases, with controversies, which, in the moment of emergency, are of no advantage, and conceal the few useful instructions scattered through them. In two *very* moderate octavos, the whole might have been contained. It would then have been readily accessible, easily intelligible, and highly serviceable. At present, it appears neither adapted to the student nor to the practitioner. It is cumbersome in the camp, and in a great measure useless in the library, where the originals are to be found.

VIII.—*An Essay on Education; in which are particularly considered the Merits and the Defects of the Discipline and Instruction in our Academies. By the Rev. William Barrow, LL.D. and F.A.S. &c. 2 Vols. 12mo. 8s. Boards.* Rivingtons. 1802.

THE subject of education may appear to have been already exhausted. It has indeed been confused by fanciful rêveries, and obscured by affected refinements: it is time to bring it back to the dictates of reason, supported by the experience of ages. In short, we are now about to conclude at the point where we began.

Dr. Barrow, a *miles emeritus* in the campaigns of education and instruction, has presented us, in these volumes, with the result of his own observations. It is long since he first designed to write on the subject; and he regrets that he did not regularly preserve memoranda and anecdotes. We cannot join in this regret; for he has now given us a comprehensive view of the whole subject, instead of what might otherwise perhaps have been a more loose and voluminous publication, to the same effect. There is, we think, little novelty in the author's remarks; yet this we do not consider as a fault. In some instances, he may not have entered, with sufficient depth, into his subject; but

this is a point which will afterwards recur, and claim our particular consideration.

The first chapter, 'on the necessity and importance of a right education,' cannot be supposed to contain many new ideas; but what occur are placed in a just and striking light. The second, 'on the prejudices of education,' has to us appeared much more interesting. We agree with our author, that to root out such prejudices, is to tear the finest web of the human heart, to combat our best feelings, to destroy our most interesting attachments. To become what, in the modern jargon, is styled a citizen of the world —a modern philanthropist—it is to be the cold philosopher, with a splendid and feeling outside.

The third chapter, 'on the discipline and instruction of infants,' is excellent. We should have enlarged on it more fully, and praised it more warmly, were not its sentiments the same as we have already expressed, in our review of Miss Hamilton's Treatise. On 'the comparative advantages of a public and private education,' Dr. Barrow has not given the arguments in favour of his own opinion—the preference of a public school—with sufficient force, nor compacted them with a comprehensive energy. This subject we have lately considered at length, and shall not enlarge on it. We have, indeed, often met with the inquiry, and have already lent Dr. Barrow's opinion all the assistance in our power.

'On the choice of a school,' much general observation may be advanced; but private views will still necessarily influence it. Our author prefers a numerous seminary; and properly stipulates, that the master should be himself a scholar—a circumstance sometimes taken on trust, and sometimes passed over, from the idea of his *undertaking to procure* proper assistants. But who will enable him to judge of the assistants' talents, or the progress of his pupils? Who will expect much from a master, who has not been duly initiated, or whose knowledge of classical learning has been irregularly caught, or imperfectly obtained? Dr. Barrow thinks that the master should be a member of the established church. Generally speaking, we think the same, since the pupils may otherwise cherish from example some little disregard, if not disrespect, for the national religion; and since dissenters have not often an accurate and well-grounded knowledge of the classics, and are seldom sufficiently attentive to prosody. Lord Chatham was severely censured for calling the dissenters 'men of close ambition;' but, we fear, they may be sometimes styled so; for, in many of their institutions, we discern a cunning mixture of policy. We perceive professions of liberality,

incentives to free inquiry, an urgent zeal for general discussion; but these must terminate only in one point—a dissent from establishments. If this be obtained, a Calvinist will join with a Socinian, or even a deist, or any other class that dissents from the established pale. Such persons should not, in our opinion, be entrusted with the great object of national education. On this point, however, we shall present our author's sentiments in his own words:

'It is well known that a large proportion of the dissenters in this country differ from us as widely in their political, as in their religious, opinions; and whether we consult the known properties of human nature, or the history of human actions, we shall find, that those, who oppose an establishment, always exceed those, who support it, in their zeal and activity to make converts to their cause, to encrease their numbers, and their strength. He therefore, who sends his son to a dissenter for instruction, sends him at the hazard of being educated in doctrines, which the son will soon find to be at variance with those generally received; in a dislike to that system of political government, under which he is to live; and a disapprobation of that form of religious worship, with which he will afterwards be constantly tempted by his interest to comply. It requires no great effort of imagination, then, to perceive in such proceedings one source of discontent in the members of the community, of enmity to the establishment, and to those, who enjoy its advantages; of opposition in the great council of the nation; and sometimes, in event, of rebellion in the state. I am far from intending to reflect particularly upon the loyalty, the religion, or the morals of the dissenters of our own times; but that there is too much justice in the general sentiments that have been stated, the annals of our country abundantly testify.' Vol. i. p. 145.

'On the choice of a profession,' our author's observations are not exactly what we could have wished. We approve of the maxim of antiquity, '*optimum vitæ genus eligito; nam consuetudo faciet jucundissimum;*' but it must be taken with some limitation. Clavius was proverbially dull, till tried in the mathematics; and an eminent botanist, of our own time, was never able to master any other subject. A good memory, with a talent of discrimination, will lead a young man to eminence in many of the walks of nature: patient thinking, a power of close intense investigation, will render him a mathematician. Such were Linnæus and Thunberg, Newton and Simpson. Would they have succeeded equally if their destinies had been changed? We think not; yet propensities thus strongly marked are not often met with; and, in the circle of our own acquaintance, we have seen lively mathematicians and dull natural historians. We conceive, however, that a strong memory, a lively fancy, accurate discrimination, and patient thinking,

may, in their turn, be properly considered as leading to a variety of different professions.

The chapter 'on the estimation, treatment, and grievances of the masters of academies,' contains some curious anecdotes; but we cannot enlarge on them. That 'on grammars' affords nothing peculiarly interesting. The observations 'on the study of the English language' are particularly valuable; and we mark, with much satisfaction, the author's caveat against new words or innovations in spelling. We indeed borrow words from the French; but they borrow idioms from us; and their modern authors are almost English. The translators of Denon have scarcely to change the turn of a sentence. In poetry, Dr. Barrow thinks, but without sufficient reason, that we have not succeeded in the sonnet and the ode. The former is, indeed, one of the *difficiles nugæ*, in which to fail would occasion no disgrace; but we have many excellent examples of the legitimate sonnet in the works of Mrs. Smith and Mr. J. Bampfylde. In the other department, we may mention, without fear of contradiction or disgrace, the odes of Gray, Mason, and Collins.

'On writing, arithmetic, and the mathematics,' our author's reflexions are judicious and correct; but that the 'Elements of Euclid are rendered most intelligible in Simpson,' is an assertion that seems to have escaped too hastily and inconsiderately. We suspect that Dr. Barrow has not greatly cultivated the mathematical field, particularly in its higher departments. With respect to geometry, the easiest work we know is that of Euclid, in its original language.—The concluding chapter of the first volume is a defence of classical learning, equally able, judicious, and elegant.

In the second volume, we can distinguish the first chapter, 'on the art of teaching,' with particular commendation. Our author's system does not greatly differ from that of the best public schools; and no refinements have yet shown that their plans are improper. When we meet with scholars equally well instructed, with men equally able and spirited, with professional characters distinguished by as much science, candour, and disinterestedness, from private seminaries, we will readily change our opinions. Even in point of virtue, whatever may be said of the conduct of *boys*, we believe the *men* are not inferior.

'Translations and auxiliary books' our author would reject—we think with reason. We have lately had occasion to turn our thoughts to this subject, by an amicable discussion with the master of a public school, on their utility, which he was inclined to defend. His argument was, that

boys, who employed such books clandestinely, were not less able as scholars, and made a greater advancement in their knowledge of the scope and spirit of the author. The latter, we believe; nor would it, perhaps, be improper to read from a good and free translation the substance of the lesson, after it has been regularly acquired. But we still think, that what is gained without trouble, will be lost in a short time; and we *know*, that in Greek, where translations are allowed, our own knowledge of the language commenced from the period when we covered the Latin with a paper. Dr. Barrow, however, stigmatises, too indiscriminately, all translations—Castellio's of the Greek Testament; Hutchinson's of the Cyrupædia of Zenophon, are peculiarly elegant, as Latin compositions. The observations on 'mythology, chronology, and history,' offer no very particular subject of remark. We suspect that, on the second topic, our author would lead the young student into some mazes, through which he would, with difficulty, find his way.

What relates to 'compositions in prose and verse,' deserves the attention of every judicious and intelligent schoolmaster. The ensuing observations merit particular regard:

'But whatever may be the value of translation, and whatever time may be with propriety bestowed upon it, it is still only the means to an end; either the instrument of acquiring a language, or the handmaid of original composition. This last, indeed, in order to be practised long, must be early begun, and steadily continued, in English and in Latin, in prose and in verse. It will no doubt be difficult for children to write, who are neither very able nor very willing to think. It will not be in their power to produce such stores of sentiment and expression, as they have not yet by reading or reflexion collected in their minds. Invention, in the most improved and powerful intellect, is little else than new combinations of ideas already known. The imagination can produce only what it has previously received. The time, at which the pupils first attempt original composition, will therefore be the fittest season for the preceptor to urge, what they will then most sensibly feel to be just, the advantages and the necessity of private study; of perusing, at those opportunities, when their regular business does not require their attention, such works as may enlarge their faculties and every way enrich their minds. The established hours and lessons of a school are never of themselves sufficient for all the various purposes of education; and it is fortunate that the same additional pursuits, which enable the student to perform his task with credit for the present, will best supply the means of future intellectual excellence; will furnish him with sentiments and images, with facts and reflections, with argument and illustration. These purposes, it is obvious, will be most effectually answered by the perusal of our works of history and ethicks, poetry and criticism. And in his advice to his pupils on the subject, the teacher will not fail to recommend such as are adapted at once to the taste and the capacities of youth; such as may captivate

by the graces of their manner as well as the importance of their contents; and secure attention by dressing instruction in the garb of pleasure. In the mean time the judicious master will easily determine, what may with propriety be expected from his pupils; what allowance ought to be made for incapacity and inexperience; and what ought to be required from genius and application. Original composition, however, must be attempted as soon as possible; and it is no small encouragement, that every successive attempt will facilitate every future performance. Such an exercise, too, may at first be required from the student, as shall not discourage him by its difficulty; to give, for example, the narrative of a fable, or the incidents of a well known story, in his own language; to write a familiar letter in any assumed character, and to any supposed friend, that happens to strike his fancy; or to state his opinion of the wisdom or folly, the vice or virtue, of the hero of his classical lesson.

'One of the most usual, however, and perhaps one of the most useful, of our exercises in prose at school, are those moral or literary essays known by the technical appellation of themes. To these, therefore, the prudent teacher will have recourse, as soon as the progress of his pupils will permit; and he will repeat them with such frequency as their importance demands. The custom of many of our schools, to appoint weekly one theme in our own, and another in the Latin tongue, seems justly entitled to commendation. It is as little, perhaps, as is consistent with the due improvement of the student in this species of composition; and as much as is compatible with due attention to the various other exercises and lessons which the complicated business of education requires.

'Original composition, above every thing else, exercises the pupil in the rules and principles of grammar; teaches him to discriminate the various shades of meaning in similar and kindred terms; to clothe his ideas in language; to arrange them in the sentence; and to place his sentiments in such a point of view, and in such succession, as may best illustrate the truth, which he is called upon to support.' Vol. ii. p. 82.

Exercises in English poetry may, perhaps, be omitted, without any material disadvantage. The study of the French language should not, in our author's opinion, interfere with classical learning: it should rather be deferred till the judgement is more matured. Many reasons concur in supporting this opinion, with which we cordially agree. The following sentiments are also peculiarly just:

'Could the language, however, be perfectly obtained, without prejudice even to other studies, still there are very serious objections to its being made a general object of the earlier part of British education. Many of the modern publications in it abound in sentiments and opinions hostile to every thing which we have been taught to esteem and cultivate; to the precepts of good morals; to the principles of our civil government; and to the doctrines of our national religion. Nor are these dangerous and noxious tenets found only

where they might in some degree be expected, in the theories of the politician, and the disquisitions of the philosopher. But by the dexterity of literary chemistry they are infused into writings of every description; they are brought to unite with principles the most opposite and heterogeneous. The historian interrupts his narrative and relaxes his gravity to sneer at the priesthood and the privileged orders of society; and the traveller pauses in his journey to complain of the restraints and the wretchedness of civilization, in comparison with the freedom and felicity of savage life. The naturalist in his researches can find a confirmation of his infidelity, instead of new proofs of revelation; the mechanism of nature, instead of the wisdom of her creator: and the novelist, when his licentious sentiments and descriptions have enflamed the passions of his reader, will generally furnish him with a principle, on which they may be indulged without restraint and without remorse. Even the compiler of a dictionary will contrive, in the midst of verbal definitions, to teach practical cruelty under the title of universal philanthropy; atheism in the disguise of devotion; and rebellion and revolution in the form and colour of the natural rights of man. These surely are not the authors which our children ought to peruse; nor will these, if they learn the language, be easily kept out of their hands. In the school and with the teacher a proper selection of books may without difficulty be made. But in their hours of privacy and leisure who shall restrain them! who shall prevent their reading, according to the usual perverseness of our nature, the works most likely to mislead their understandings, and corrupt their morals; and that too with the greatest eagerness, because they have been the most strictly forbidden.' Vol. ii. p. 121.

Under the heads of 'compulsion and correction,' many ingenious 'pains and penalties' are devised; but the rod is the only effectual remedy; and every master of experience must acknowledge it, as Dr. Barrow does, though with apparent reluctance. The chapters, 'on diversions and holidays,' and 'religious instruction,' are uniformly correct and judicious.

The virtues and vices of boys afford an ample theme. We have almost said, in one part of this article, that a public school is a seminary of virtue: it is, at least, a preservative against the meanest and most despicable of vices. Fidelity to engagements, adherence to principles, honour, and generosity, here fix very deep roots. Perverseness, caprice, sullenness, and obstinacy, find no soil. They soon wither under ridicule, or are eradicated by the forcible arguments of a good threshing. Unfortunately, there are drawbacks. The principle of fidelity to engagements sometimes encourages lying; and swearing is said not to be uncommon. Within our own observation, the latter accusation is not, we think, well founded. Debauchery, in the older boys, is certainly among the vices of a public school, which,

we fear, with our author, cannot always be sufficiently guarded against. But have private seminaries no worse faults?—We dare not answer, nor enlarge on the question.

The chapter 'on ornamental accomplishments' is excellent. We shall select the conclusion, or rather the summary of the whole.

'In the pursuit of these ornamental and secondary accomplishments the danger is, lest they should occupy the time, the place, and the estimation of more necessary and more substantial acquisitions. They constitute those superficial and captivating qualities, which please, because they are not severely examined, and are not severely examined, because they please. They contribute to that levity of mind and conduct, which at present threatens to impair the firm texture of the British character and British virtue. The youth naturally covets, what strikes so forcibly his eye and his fancy. The parent encourages, what he sees likely to promote the credit or the success of his offspring in the world; and the possessor at last values highly, what he sees highly valued by all around him. He is sometimes vain and absurd enough to consider any of these accomplishments, in which he is distinguished, or at least to wish them to be considered by others, as of real importance to himself and to society; as a sufficient substitute for all other excellence, whether intellectual, moral, or religious. Nero felt little anxiety for his reputation as a statesman, while he could obtain applause by his performances on the fiddle.

'The time required to attain excellence is the circumstance, which must never be forgotten. That art is long, and life is short, is a maxim, which has lost its novelty, but not its truth; and to which attention can never more properly be paid, than in the education of our children, and the direction of their studies and employments. Johnson has made his Rasselas observe, that after deducting the years of imbecillity in infancy, and in old age, the true period of human existence may be estimated at forty years: and from this limited calculation not less than half must be again deducted, for those frequent relaxations of the mind, which the weakness of our faculties irresistibly requires; for that repose of the limbs, which nature has made necessary in the intervals of labour; and for that sickness or misfortune, which no man can always escape. If then a period of not more than twenty years can be employed in the discharge of our various duties; in providing for ourselves, and for those who depend upon us; in the propagation of truth, and the exercise of virtue; a small portion only can be innocently spared for the acquisition of such accomplishments, as have no intrinsic value; and of which the sole utility is to decorate the merit, which they cannot augment. They sweeten the intercourse of society; but over its best interests they have little influence. In the season of youth they are acceptable and pleasing; but they constitute neither the proper employment, nor the proper comfort, of declining years. They may sometimes beguile the toil of serious duties; but of these they form no essential part. That must not supply the place of virtue, which was intended only

for its ornament; that must not form the business of life, which was granted only for its consolation.' Vol. ii. p. 258.

The observations 'on an early knowledge of the world' are truly excellent. Dr. Barrow contends, with great energy and success, against the too early introduction of young men into general company; and highly reprobates the modern system of consigning the clerk or the apprentice to a cheerless lodging, after the business of the day is at an end—a dreary abode, which he will be tempted to change for the tavern, perhaps the brothel. The master should succeed to the father, and superintend the morals of his charge in private, as he does his proficiency in his own business.

The last chapter is 'on the effects of the late revolution in France'—a subject which has engaged much of our attention, and on which we have not been ashamed to retract opinions that experience showed to be delusive and dangerous. The inquiry is connected with the present subject, by considering 'the nature and extent of the mischief; and in what degree it may be corrected or restrained, by the judicious management of education.' The nature and extent of the mischief is very fully detailed, and, we suspect, not exaggerated, though the colouring is peculiarly gloomy. We have, it is remarked, already prepared the soil for the seed, by a laxity of manners and education: by correcting these, we may obviate the effects. We fear, indeed, that the snake is scotched, not killed; and that the roots of Jacobinism are expanding, and sinking deeper: yet we hope there is still virtue enough—still a sufficiency of energy and public spirit—to contend successfully against the hydra, with whatever rapidity its heads may sprout.

In these volumes, we have, indeed, no new system, no speculative refinement, no shorter way to knowledge; but we find much to commend. Sound solid sense, matured experience, extensive and acute observation, distinguish every page. Strict morality, virtue, and religion, are in every part conspicuous.

ART. IX.—*Sermons, designed, chiefly, as a Preservative from Infidelity, and religious Indifference. By John Prior Estlin.* 8*vo.* 7*s.* 6*d. Boards.* Johnson. 1802.

TO form a proper estimate of compositions from the pulpit, a previous knowledge is requisite of the preacher's object, as well as of the persons to whom they are addressed. From the dedication to this volume, it appears that the dis-

courses it contains were chiefly designed for the younger part of Mr. Estlin's audience, particularly for his pupils and children; whilst the topics selected are not only such as are of high importance at all times, but especially interesting in the present, which the author considers as peculiarly dangerous to the *rising generation*.

Mr. Estlin's concern for the interests of natural religion has already been evinced, by his answer to the *Origine de Cultes* of DUPUIS; nor has he less successfully subverted the sophisms of *the Age of Reason* against divine revelation. From the same motive, this volume begins with a prefatory discourse upon FAITH; the text being taken from Heb. xi. 6.—*Without* faith, *it is impossible to please him; for he that cometh to God must believe that he is, and that he is a rewarder of them that diligently seek him.*—Mr. Estlin commences with briefly adverting to the different opinions that have prevailed respecting the *author* of the epistle—the *language* in which it was written—the time *when*—the place *where*—and the persons to *whom* addressed; whence he proceeds to observe, after several apposite remarks, that the circumstance which affords, in his judgement, the best key to the whole epistle, and to which reference in every part of it perpetually occurs, is—

'the *Jewish war*, which commenced in the year sixty-six, and ended in the entire destruction of the temple, of the Jewish worship and polity, and of the city of Jerusalem itself by Titus, in the year seventy. Whenever therefore you read Josephus's account of the siege of Jerusalem, or our Saviour's prediction of this event, consult this epistle, and whenever you read this epistle think of the siege of Jerusalem, and the total destruction of that city, and of the Jewish temple, worship and polity, and you will see—you will feel beauties in every passage, to which a genuine sensibility of heart will suggest a proper commentary.

'In such circumstances—with his own dissolution full in his view—with his mind fixed upon those inconceivably awful events which were just going to take place, what could have been the design of the apostle, in this his last great effort to serve the cause of Christ, but to strengthen the faith of his countrymen; to prepare them to meet, and to comfort them under their unparalleled distresses; to preserve them from apostacy and despair, and to arm them with fortitude and resolution? And what topics were so proper for him to insist upon, with this benevolent design, as the importance of faith; the superiority of the Christian dispensation, in all its parts, to that which was just going to be abolished; and the certainty, greatness and duration of the rewards promised to persevering obedience? Although there are no times in which the advice which the apostle gives in this epistle is unseasonable and improper, there never was a period (and as was just observed, it was the most interesting of all periods) when it was so seasonable and so proper.' P. 3.

These general observations having been pertinently stated, the preacher proceeds to explain the nature and foundation of that faith which is so strongly inforced in the context, pointing out its importance, and recommending it as the universal principle of action. To justify his definition, that faith, in its most natural and liberal sense, signifies nothing more than *a firm belief*, or *persuasion of mind*, and especially in the text, Mr. Estlin adduces *that* of the apostle: but the words of our translation, in which it is expressed, we think extremely erroneous, if not unintelligible. For, if *faith* were the SUBSTANCE of things *hoped for*, the object of hope would be already in possession. We therefore would take ὑποστασις in its simple sense, to signify the *foundation* on which expectation is grounded, and the *conviction* that τα βλεπομενα, the promises made, would be truly fulfilled. The application of this explanation to the words of the text will sufficiently confirm its truth; and, indeed, what is afterwards suggested in the sermon is perfectly congruent with it. Mr. Estlin, by inforcing faith as the essential and universal principle of right action through the whole of human conduct, evinces it to be his own rule of life; and thence strenuously recommends it to others.

His next discourse is on *Fortitude*—2 Peter i. 5: *Add, to your faith*, VIRTUE. Having introduced the subject with some pertinent remarks, and shown that *virtue*, in its primary and original signification, meaned *courage* or *fortitude*, the preacher thus proceeds to exemplify its qualities and effects.

'You must, at first view, my friends, see the importance of this principle, the very high rank it holds in the scale of moral duties, and the absolute necessity of it, as the ground and foundation of every thing that is great, respectable and commendable in human characters or actions. It is not to be conceived that where this principle has taken deep root in the breast, the mind can be under the influence of any of those base and tormenting fears which fill it with anxiety or perturbation, expose it to the attack of temptation, or prevent it from exerting itself in such a manner as reason and conscience dictate. The want of this manly virtue is the cause of that unsteadiness, weakness, irresolution, and inconsistency, which we discover in some characters, and of that criminal conformity to the world, that indifference to religion, and that general depravity of principle, which we perceive and lament so much in others. A well founded fortitude—that is fortitude founded on a principle of religion, or fortitude added to faith—can alone impart that dignity, firmness, and consistency of character, which all must admire, but which so few are able to attain. The world in which we are placed, the strength of our animal appetites from within, and the allurements of pleasure from without, all conspire against our virtue, and call for the most strenuous exertions of a steady and manly resolution. We every day see characters, which we cannot regard but with some degree of contempt, though this con-

tempt may be mixed with pity, which we should have admired and respected, if this single quality had been found in their composition. How often have we lamented the want of it, in those who we knew were adorned with the most amiable dispositions of heart, but whose conduct, upon this account only, was marked by irregularity and inconsistency? Those who have made many observations on human life, will be very sensible how many actions of men, seemingly strange and unaccountable in creatures endued with reason, are to be traced up to this weakness of mind as their cause. Its influence upon those who are young and inexperienced in the ways of men, is frequently such as to lay a foundation for sorrow and remorse through the whole of future life. How often have we seen the amiable youth, the pride of his parents, the hope of his friends, and the delight of his acquaintance, upon his entering into life, and mixing with those whose opinions and practices he had been taught too indiscriminately to respect, become, in a short time, loose in his principles, irregular in his conduct, and insipid in his whole manner and conversation, merely because he wanted that fortitude of mind which is necessary to resist the influence of evil example, and which is the strongest guard and security of virtue? In most minds the dread of singularity, and the fear of incurring the censure of others, is a principle which has more than its due strength. We make our happiness to depend more upon the opinion which our fellow creatures form of our characters than we ought to do. It would be happy for us, if we were less afraid of their censure, and more of that of our own hearts and Almighty God; if we were less solicitous about their approbation, and more about the approbation of God and our own consciences. Young minds, in particular, (frequently at first through the excess of modesty and humility) are very apt to over estimate the good opinion of others; they ought therefore to be cautioned to be particularly on their guard against temptations from this quarter, and to be instructed to acquire that fortitude which will enable them to say *no*, when conscience cannot comply, and to bear the imputation of singularity, when others would lead them into courses which their impartial judgment must condemn. Every serious and conscientious person, who mixes much in the world, must expect sometimes to meet with the sneer of the profane, and the reproach of the unprincipled, for his zealous attachment to his duty. Fortitude must enable us to regard these with indifference. Virtue cannot stoop so low as to comply with all the customs and manners of a corrupt and degenerate age. Whatever be the maxims or practices of the world; how disagreeable so ever it may be to our feelings to be singular, we must not recede one step from the plain and direct path of duty.' P. 24.

In a subsequent part of this sermon, the subject of *duelling* is discussed, and very justly reprehended, as totally incompatible with the Christian religion—to be capable of receiving the blessings of which, the forgiveness of trespasses is an essential pre-requisite. That this barbarous practice is sinking in repute, the frequent sentences passed in our courts upon challengers are a favourable ground of presumption.

The subject of the third discourse is *Justice*, from MICAH vi. 8. In it the nature of the duty is well explained, and very powerfully recommended to practice. The same judgement will as strongly apply to the two next topics contained in the text; *viz. Mercy*, and *walking humbly with God.*

In the sixth sermon, from JOHN i. 45, &c. *the Character of Nathaniel* is developed, and many pertinent and useful observations interspersed: it concludes in the following manner:—

'Just and rational sentiments only, on subjects of religion, will not secure us the divine approbation. If we have not the courage and integrity openly to avow our principles, and to bear our honest testimony to the truth, the extent of our knowledge will serve only as the measure of the depravity of our hearts. In a scale of moral depravity, laid down with accuracy, what crime could stand at a higher degree than an habitual violation of truth, proceeding from a regard to self interest alone? That any human being should, in any circumstances, dare to approach the throne of the God of truth, holiness and justice, with insincerity in his heart, and falsehood on his lips,—my soul sickens at the thought.

'A zeal for religious opinions, under the regulation of prudence and benevolence, is certainly commendable; but let this principle sink into indifference, rather than stand in competition with a zeal for religious integrity. In whatever inviting form temptation may appear, may God, who searcheth the heart, grant that she may never prevail on any one of us to expose himself to that most dreadful of all censures, "Thou hast lied, not unto men, but unto God." Under all the frowns of the world, let us, my brethren, solace ourselves with the reflection, that we have not paid this price—a price, at which mitres and thrones would be dearly purchased, for any temporal honours or emoluments whatever. Let us remember, that the rights of conscience are unalienable, because they are a trust, which God himself has committed into our hands. Let us, then, preserve them sacred and inviolate. Let us ever present to him, what he has a right to receive, the homage of a mind, pure, upright, and sincere, in its deepest recesses. Our religious integrity let us hold fast, and not let it go whatever else we may lose, that our own hearts may not reproach us as long as we live.

'Compositum jus, fasque animo; sanctosque recessus
Mentis, et incoctum generoso pectus honesto:
Hæc cedo ut admoveam templis, et farre litabo. PERS.'

P. 100.

The subject of *Miracles* is discoursed on, from JOHN iii. 1, 2, in opposition to Hume, Paine, &c. on the ordinary grounds of evidence, and the position that the world is the work of God.

Returning in the eighth sermon to a practical subject, we have an excellent discourse, to prove *the Neglect of Advan-*

tages sinful, from JOHN xv. 22:—*If I had not come and spoken to them, they had not known sin: but now they have no cloak for their sin.* As also in the ninth, to show, from ACTS x. 34, that *God is no respecter of persons.*

Mr. Pope, a predecessor of Mr. Estlin in the same congregation, having appointed by his will a sermon to be preached annually on the first of May, chiefly for the benefit of young persons, the two next discourses—from *the Advice of David to Solomon*, in 1 CHRON. xxviii. 9; and *the Example of Christ in his Youth*, from LUKE ii. 52—are judiciously selected, and usefully applied.

The twelfth is a funeral sermon on the death of the preacher's collegue, Mr. WRIGHT, from HEBREWS xiii. 7. The exordium to this discourse is particularly solemn and affecting; and the last scene of that excellent man cannot fail to interest every well-disposed mind.

'The end of the conversation of that respectable person whose life had been a life of faith and obedience, was peaceful, serene, and happy. "Yes," said he, "my course is finished, I have received the sentence of death, and I have received it with more calmness than I thought I could have done. You tell me, my friend, that I have no reason to be alarmed or terrified; I am not alarmed or terrified, but surely it is a solemn thing to die. I cannot go beyond sincerity, with this I can appear without terror before my father and my God; I ground my confidence on his goodness and mercy, as manifested by Jesus Christ. When I consider the advantages I have enjoyed, I have reason for diffidence and humility; do you pray, and request my friends to pray, that I may, with my animating prospects, preserve this diffidence and humility: farewell, do not be distressed yourself, nor suffer your family to be distressed on account of my situation; if I survive this night, I hope to see you in the morning." P. 200.

'I saw him no more. He calmly, and with apparently very little bodily pain, closed his eyes in Jesus, in firm belief of a resurrection to eternal life. Farewell, for a short time, my highly honoured friend, and fellow labourer in the Gospel!

'We shall meet again in brighter scenes, and in regions of higher perfection and enjoyment. "Blessed are the dead who thus die in the Lord, for they rest from their labours, and their works do follow them." "Comfort yourselves and one another with these words." P. 201.

Considerations on the intermediate and future State constitute the subject of the subsequent sermon, from ZACHARIAH i. 5, in application to the commencement of the year. Having noticed the different opinions alleged on the condition of men between death and the resurrection, without positively venturing to decide, Mr. Estlin proceeds to truths that are indisputable, and the preparation which necessarily results

from them. To this, the fourteenth sermon is properly a sequel, and has for its subject *the future Happiness of the Righteous*, from HEBREWS xii. 22, 23. In this discourse, the author favours the doctrine of universal restitution, in opposition to *eternity of torment*, and *annihilation*; but with no argument beyond what has been often antecedently advanced. Nor, indeed, does he appear consistent with himself, when all that he asserts in the two next discourses—entitled, *Misery the Lot of the Wicked*, from ISAIAH iii. 11; and *the Wicked excluded from Heaven*, grounded on MATTHEW XXV. 10: *And the door was shut*—is taken in account.

The seventeenth and eighteenth are *Sermons for Charity-Schools amongst the Protestant Dissenters at Birmingham and Bristol:* the former, from HEBREWS ii. 10, denominated *All Things for God and by him;* the latter *on Education in general, with Remarks on female Education*, the text being taken from PROVERBS xxii. 6: both discourses are appropriate to their respective objects.

On the Danger of imitating fashionable Vices, from EXODUS xxiii. 2, we have a very serious and well-pointed address. If the generality of preachers adopted the same direct and impressive manner, they could, we think, preach with greater effect.

The twentieth sermon, on *the Salutations of St. Paul*, drawn from ROMANS xvi. 7, is a very interesting discourse; and is followed by that which closes the volume, from PSALM cxxxvii. 5, 6, *explaining and recommending the Love of our Country:* the last was delivered on signing the preliminaries of peace.

To this general account of the volume, we have to add, that we have found it to possess considerable merit. Of the author, no person perusing them can fail to think highly. Where his sentiments differ from our own, we give him full credit for his writing from conviction; and, though we cannot always approve of his poetical expressions or citations, his style is adapted, in the main, to a popular audience; and we doubt not that much good has resulted from his labours.

ART. X.—*A Series of Plays: in which it is attempted to delineate the stronger Passions of the Mind. Each Passion being the Subject of a Tragedy and a Comedy. By Joanna Baillie. Vol. II.* 8vo. 8*s.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1802.

'AFTER a considerable interval of time' (says miss Baillie) 'from the publishing of the first, I now offer to the public a second volume of the "Series of Plays;" and, with it, my very grateful thanks for that indulgence and cheering approbation which has encouraged me to

proceed thus far in my work. I have to thank it, for that kind of reception which is best calculated to make a work go on well—praise mixed with a considerable portion of censure. I have to thank it, indeed, for that kind of reception which I solicited; conscious that it was the best in regard to my real interest, which I could receive, as well as the very best, in regard to my merits, which I could possibly presume to expect. If with this great advantage, beyond what I enjoyed when I wrote the first part of this work, I have fallen short in the second volume, of what might have been reasonably expected from me, I have only to say for myself that I have done my best, and that my abilities are in fault, and not my industry. The time indeed that has elapsed since the publication of the first volume, will, I trust, be considered as a proof that the portion of public approbation with which I have been favoured, has not rendered me presumptuous.

'I know there are causes, why the second part of a work should be more severely dealt with, than that which has preceded it: but after what I have experienced, it would be ungrateful in me not to suppose that the generality of readers will take up this volume with a disposition to be pleased; and that they will also, in favour of one who has no great pretensions to learning or improvements, be inclined to extend the term of good-natured indulgence a little beyond its ordinary limits.' P. vii.

The first volume of this work appeared with an unpromising title—for all plays are designed to delineate some passion: it came anonymously into the world; and the author was not even suspected. But these circumstances were all favourable to a work of such great and original merit: the reader was pleased; and the more so, because he had not been taught to expect pleasure; and anonymous writers, like the dead, are praised more willingly, than those who, by displaying their own powers, offend the inferiority of their contemporaries. This volume, we fear, will be taken up, by the generality of readers, rather with an expectation than a disposition to be pleased.

'The first play in this volume, is a comedy on Hatred, as a companion to the tragedy I have already published upon the same subject. Of this I shall say little. I have endeavoured in it to shew this passion in a different situation, and fostered by a different species of provocation from that which was exhibited in De Monfort, and existing in a character of much less delicacy and reserve. I am aware, that it falls greatly short of that degree of comic effect which the subject is calculated to produce, and which a writer of truer comic talents would have given it.' P. viii.

'SCENE I.—*The open market-place of a small country town, a crowd of men, women, and children seen on the back ground;* Margery *and* Countryman *surrounded with several others are discovered talking on the front of the stage.*

'*Margery.* Patron! pot-man an' you will. As long as he holds

the brown jug to their heads, they'll run after him an' he were the devil. Oh! that I should live to see the heir of the ancient family of Baltimore set aside in his own borough by a nasty, paltry, nobody-knows-who of an upstart! What right has he, forsooth! to set himself up for to oppose a noble gentleman? I remember his own aunt very well; a poor, industrious, pains-taking woman, with scarcely a pair of shoes to her feet.

'*Countryman.* Well, well, and what does that signify, Goody? He has covered more bare feet with new shoes since he came among us, than all the noble families in the country, let his aunt wear what shoes she would: ay, and his bounty has filled more empty bellies too, though his granum might dine on a turnip, for aught I know or care about the matter.

'*Mar.* Don't tell me about his riches, and his bounty, and what not: will all that ever make him any thing else than the son of John Freeman the weaver? I wonder to hear you talk such nonsense, Arthur Wilkins; you that can read books and understand reason: such a fellow as that is not good enough to stand cap in hand before Mr. Baltimore.

(*The rabble come forward huzzaing, and making a great noise, and take different sides of the stage.*)

'*Crowd on F. side.*) Huzza! huzza! Freeman for ever!

'*Mar.* Yes, yes, to be sure: Freeman for ever! fat Sam the butcher for ever! black Dick the tinker for ever! any body is good enough for you, filthy rapscallions!

'*1st Mob on F. side.*) Ay, scold away, old Margery! Freeman for ever! say I. Down with your proud, pennyless gentry! Freeman for ever!

'*Mar.* Down with your rich would-be-gentry upstarts! Baltimore for ever! (*to mob on her side*) Why don't you call out, oafs?

(*The mob on her side call out* Baltimore, *and the mob on the other* Freeman; *but the F. side gets the better.*)

What, do you give it up so? you poor, spiritless nincumpoops! I would roar till I bursted first, before I would give it up to such a low-liv'd, beggarly rabble.

'*2d. mob on F. side.*) They lack beef and porter, Margery. That makes fellows loud and hearty, I trow. Coats of arms and old pictures wont fill a body's stomach. Come over to Freeman-hall, and we'll shew you good cheer, woman. Freeman for ever!

'*Mar.* Ha' done with your bawling, blackimoor! what care I for your good cheer? none of your porter nor your beef for me, truly!

'*2d. Mob on F. side.*) No, Goody! mayhap, as you have been amongst the gentry all your life, you may prefer a cup of nice sage tea, or a little nice rue-water, or a leg of a roasted snipe, or a bit of a nice tripe dumplin.

'*Mar.* Close your fool's mouth, oaf! or I'll cram a dumplin into it that you wont like the chewing of. Mr. Baltimore's father kept a table like a prince, when your poor beggarly candidate's father had scarcely a potatoe in his pot. But knaves like you were not admitted within his gates to see it, indeed. Better men than you, or your master either, were not good enough to take away his dirty trenchers;

and the meanest creature about his house was as well dress'd, and in as good order, as if it had been the king's court, and every day in the year had been a Sunday.

'*2d. Mob on F. side.*) So they were, Goody; I remember it very well; the very sucking pigs ran about his yard with full bottom'd wigs on, and the grey goose waddled through the dirt with a fine flounced petticoat.

'*Mar.* Hold your fool's tongue, do! no upstart parliament-men for me! Baltimore for ever!

'*Crowd on B. side call out*) Baltimore for ever!

'*1st Mob on B. side.*) Sour paste and tangled bobbins for weavers!

'*1st Mob on F. side.*) Empty purses and tatter'd lace for gentlemen!

'*Old woman on B. side.*) We'll have no strange new-comers for our member: Baltimore for me!

'*Old woman on F. side.*) Good broth is better than good blood, say I: Freeman for me!

'*Little Boy on B. side.*) Weaver, weaver, flap, flap!
Grin o'er your shuttle, and rap, rap!
(*Acting the motion of a weaver.*)

'*Little Boy on F. side.* Gentleman, gentleman, proud of a word!
Stand on your tip-toes, and bow to my lord!
(*Acting a gentleman.*)

'*Mar.* Go, you little devil's imp! who teaches you to blaspheme your betters? (*She gives the boy a box on the ear: the mob on the other side take his part: a great uproar and confusion, and exeunt both sides fighting.*)' P. 3.

This is an admirable opening. 'Any body,' says Johnson, 'can begin a poem abruptly, who has read the ballad of Johnny Armstrong.' It might be supposed that any dramatic writer of genius could begin a play well, if we did not remember how clumsily the most celebrated of those writers introduce two courtiers, or two gentlemen; and how inartificially the ancients *prologised* their plays with the history of the subject. The Electra of Sophocles, and the Alchemist, still remain unrivaled for the skill with which the story is developed in the first scene.

The following conversation between Baltimore and his wife explains the characters of the two candidates, and developes the passion upon which the play is founded.

'*Mrs. B.* And are you actually throwing away the last stake of your ruin'd fortune on a contested election?

'*Balt.* I will sell every acre of land in my possession, rather than see that man sit in parliament for the borough of Westown.

'*Mrs. B.* And why should not he as well as another? The declining fortunes of your family have long made you give up every idea of the kind for yourself: of what consequence, then, can it possibly be to you? I know very well, my dear Baltimore, it is not a pleasant thing for the representative of an old family declined in fortune, to see a rich obscure stranger buy up all the land on every side, and set

himself down like a petty prince in his neighbourhood. But if he had not done it, some other most likely would; and what should we have gain'd by the change?

'*Balt.* O! any other than himself I could have suffer'd.

'*Mrs. B.* You amaze me. He has some disagreeable follies I confess, but he is friendly and liberal.

'*Balt.* Yes, yes, he affects patronage and public spirit: he is ostentatious to an absurdity.

'*Mrs. B.* Well then, don't disturb yourself about it. If he is so, people will only laugh at him.

'*Balt.* O! hang them, but they wont laugh! I have seen the day, when, if a man made himself ridiculous, the world would laugh at him. But now, by heaven, every thing that is mean, disgusting, and absurd, pleases them but so much the better! If they would but laugh at him, I should be content.

'*Mrs. B.* My dear Baltimore! curb this strange fancy that has taken such a strong hold of your mind, and be reasonable.

'*Balt.* I can be reasonable enough. I can see as well as you do that it is nonsense to disturb myself about this man; and when he is absent I can resolve to endure him: but whenever I see him again, there is something in his full satisfied face; in the tones of his voice; ay, in the very gait and shape of his legs, that is insufferable to me.

'*Mrs. B.* Ha, ha, ha, ha, ha!

'*Balt.* What makes you laugh, Madam?

'*Mrs. B.* Indeed I have more cause to cry! yet I could not help laughing when you talk'd of his gait and his legs: for people, you must know, have taken it into their heads that there is a resemblance between you and him; I have, myself, in twilight, sometimes mistaken the one for the other.

'*Balt.* It must have been in midnight, I think. People have taken it into their heads! blind idiots! I could kick my own shins if I thought they had the smallest resemblance to his.

'*Mrs. B.* Ha, ha, ha, ha, ha!

'*Balt.* And this is matter of amusement for you, Ma'am! I abhor laughing!

'*Mrs. B.* Pray, pray forgive me! This is both ludicrous and distressing. I knew that you disliked this man from the first day he settled in your neighbourhood, and that, during two years' acquaintance, your aversion has been daily encreasing; but I had no idea of the extravagant height to which it has now arrived.

'*Balt.* Would I had sold every foot of my lands, and settled in the lone wilds of America, 'ere this man came, to be the swoln possessor of my forefathers' lands; their last remaining son, now cramp'd and elbow'd round, in one small corner of their once wide and extensive domains! Oh! I shall never forget what I felt, when, with that familiar and disgusting affability, he first held out to me his damned palm, and hail'd me as a neighbour. (*Striding up and down the stage.*) Ay, by my soul, he pretends to be affable!

'*Mrs. B.* You feel those things too keenly.

'*Balt.* A stock or a stone would feel it. He has opposed me in every contest, from the election of a member of parliament down to the chusing of a parish clerk; and yet, damn him! he will never give

me a fair occasion of quarrelling with him, for then I should be happier. (*Striding up and down again.*) Hang it! it was not worth a pinch of snuff to me, whether the high road went on one side of my field or the other; but only that I saw he was resolved to oppose me in it, and I would have died rather than have yielded to him.

'*Mrs. B.* Are you sure, Baltimore, that your own behaviour has not provoked him to that opposition?

'*Balt.* (*striding up and down as he speaks.*) He has extended his insolent liberalities over the whole country round. The very bantlings lisp his name as they sit on their little stools in the sun.

'*Mrs. B.* My dear friend!

'*Balt.* He has built two new towers to his house; and it rears up its castle head amongst the woods, as if its master were the lord and chieftain of the whole surrounding county.

'*Mrs. B.* And has this power to offend you?

'*Balt.* No, no, let him pile up his house to the clouds, if he will! I can bear all this patiently: it is his indelicate and nauseous civility that drives me mad. He goggles and he smiles; he draws back his full watry lip like a toad. (*Making a mouth of disgust.*) Then he spreads out his nail-bitten fingers as he speaks—hah!

'*Mrs. B.* And what great harm does all this do you?

'*Balt.* What harm! it makes my very flesh creep, like the wrigglings of a horse-leech or a maggot. It is an abomination beyond all endurance!' P. 8.

Every friendly feeling and friendly offer of Freeman's is rejected with pride, and sometimes insolence, by Baltimore. Mrs. Freeman, who has all her husband's vulgarity, without his goodness, commissions a lawyer to buy up Baltimore's debts, and arrest him. This kindles his indignation against Freeman to the highest pitch; for he had lately saved him from drowning. His debts, however, are paid, as he supposes, by a relation of his own wife; and immediately he challenges Freeman.—Miss Baillie now cuts the knot which she has drawn too tight to untie. The passion of Baltimore is become a madness which nothing less than such a miracle could cure—Truebridge rushes in to separate them, with the tidings that he has discovered them to be brothers.

'Now, don't think that I am going to whine to you about natural affection, and fraternal love, and such weaknesses. I know that you have lived in the constant practice of all manner of opposition and provocation towards one another for some time past: you have exercised your tempers thereby, and have acquired habits that are now, perhaps, necessary for you. Far be it from me to break in upon habits and gratifications! Only, as you are both the sons of one father, who now lies quietly in his grave, and of the good women, for I call them both good, who bore no enmity to one another, though placed in a situation very favourable for its growth, do for the love of decency take one another by the hand, and live peaceably and respectably together!' P. 102.

If this play be deficient in comic effect, it is not because miss Baillie wants comic talents, but because the passion itself is not the fit subject of comedy: it is, perhaps, even of too black a hue for tragedy. A mind in so diseased and ulcerated a state can only be contemplated with pain. In the picture of a dying soldier, blood should be shown; but, if the open lips of the wound be laid bare, instead of sympathy, the painter would excite a sickening disgust. Hence it was that an English audience shuddered at De Monfort; and the more exquisitely true the delineation,—the more the colouring resembled life, the less could the representation be endured. Not that this was the sole, or even the chief, cause of the failure of the piece now referred to. While our theatres are of their present preposterous size, the success of a good play is physically impossible: rant only can be heard, and grimace alone be seen: we must be content with farce and foolery, and pantomime and Pizarro.

'The subject of the other three plays is Ambition. It is with regret that I have extended the serious part of it to an unusual length, but I found that within a smaller compass I could not give such a view of the passion as I wished. Those passions, which are of a permanent nature, are the proper subjects of this work: such, I mean, as are capable of taking up their abode in the mind, and of gaining a strong ascendancy over it during a term of some length; I have therefore, in all these plays, given myself greater scope in point of time, than is usual with dramatic writers. But compared with ambition, perhaps, all other passions may be considered as of a transient nature. They are capable of being gratified; and, when they are gratified, they become extinct, or subside and shade themselves off (if I may be allowed the expression) into other passions and affections. Ambition alone acquires strength from gratification, and after having gained one object, still sees another rise before it, to which it as eagerly pushes on; and the dominion which it usurps over the mind is capable of enduring from youth to extreme age. To give a full view, therefore, of this passion, it was necessary to shew the subject of it in many different situations, and passing through a considerable course of events; had I attempted to do this within the ordinary limits of one play, that play must have been so entirely devoted to this single object, as to have been left bare of every other interest or attraction. These are my reasons for making so large a demand on the patience of my reader in favour of this passion, and if I am pardoned in this instance, there is little danger of my offending again in the same manner.' P. viii.

Here, we think, miss Baillie has been unfortunate in her choice of story. These plays have all the disadvantages of historical dramas — the length, the continuousness, the succession of scenes, instead of the development and unity of action. But these disadvantages can only be counterbalanced by popularity of subject. The historical plays of

Shakspeare are read with little interest abroad, even in those countries where the public taste is healthy enough to value Shakspeare as he deserves. Goetz of Berlichingen, which delights a German audience, scarcely excited notice in its English dress. Neither could Wallenstein attract attention here, though, assuredly, no German play contains passages of such Shakspearian excellence, and though so admirably translated by one who ought not to have condescended to translate at all. But Ethwald is an imaginary character, and we cannot be reconciled to the chronological arrangement of his history. Nor is it only in structure that these tragedies are defective. Miss Baillie too frequently reminds us of a poet, whom it is dangerous to imitate: to imitate, indeed, is always injudicious. The man of genius, who condescends to copy, disappoints us by a twice-told tale; and he who has no genius mutilates what he borrows. In Ethwald, we are reminded of Ophelia, of Macbeth, of Richard, and Lady Anne. Everywhere, indeed, the copy is executed with a powerful hand; but still it is a copy.

The first of these plays concludes with the supposed death of Ethwald, whom a servant of the deposed king has stabbed. The self-deceiving character of ambition is finely preserved in this scene; for which it would be difficult to find adequate terms of praise.

'Well I see
Thou look'st upon me as a dying wretch—
There is no hope.
'*Eth.* Much will it profit thee
To be prepared as tho' there were no hope;
For if thou liv'st thoul't live a better man,
And if thou diest, may heaven accept it of thee!
'*Ethw.* O that it would! But, my good Ethelbert,
To be thus seized in my high career,
With all my views of glory op'ning round me—
The Western state ev'n now invites mine arms,
And half Northumberland, in little time,
Had been to Mercia join'd.
'*Eth.* Nay, think not now, I pray thee, of these matters!
They mix uncouthly with the pious thoughts
That do become your state.
'*Ethw.* I know it well;
But they do press so closely on my heart——
O I did think to be remember'd long!
Like those grand visitations of the earth,
That on its alter'd face for ages leave
The traces of their might. Alas, alas!
I am a powerful, but a passing storm,
That soon shall be forgotten!
'*Eth.* I do beseech thee think of better things!

'*Ethw.* Thou see'st I weep.—Before thee I may weep.
(*Dropping his head upon his breast and groaning deeply.*)
Long have I toil'd and stain'd my hands in blood
To gain pre-eminence, and now, alas!
Newly arrived at this towering height,
With all my schemes of glory rip'ning round me,
I close mine eyes in darkness and am nothing.
'*Eth.* What, nothing, say'st thou?
'*Ethw.* O no, Ethelbert!
I look beyond this world, and look with dread
Where all for me is fearful and unknown.
Death I have daily braved in fields of fight,
And, when a boy, oft on the air-hung bough
I've fearless trode, beneath me roaring far
The deep swoln floods, with ev'ry erring step
Instant destruction. Had I perish'd then ——
Would that I had, since it is come to this!
(*Raising up his hands vehemently to heaven.*)
'*Eth.* Be not so vehement: this will endanger
The little chance thou still may'st have for life.
The God we fear is merciful.
'*Ethw.* Ay, he is merciful; but may it reach—
O listen to me!—Oswal I have murder'd,
And Edward, brave and gentle—Ay, this bites
With a fell tooth! I vilely have enthrall'd;
Of all his rights deprived. The loving Bertha;
Too well thou know'st what I have been to her—
Ah! thinkest thou a thousand robed priests
Can pray down mercy on a soul so foul?
'*Eth.* The inward sighs of humble penitence
Rise to the ear of heav'n when pealed hymns
Are scatter'd with the sounds of common air:
If I indeed may speak unto a king
Of low humility.
'*Ethw.* Thy words bite keenly, friend. O king me not!
Grant me but longer life, and thou shalt see
What brave amends I'll make for past offences.
Thou thinkest hardly of me; ne'ertheless,
Rough as my warriour's life has been, good thoughts
Have sometimes harbour'd here. (*Putting his hand on his heart.*)
If I had lived,
It was my full intent that, in my power,
My people should have found prosperity:
I would have prov'd to them a gen'rous lord.
If I had lived——Ah! think'st thou, Ethelbert,
There is indeed no hope?
'*Eth.* I may not flatter you.
'*Ethw.* (*holding up his clasped hands.*)
Then heav'n have mercy on a guilty soul!
Good Ethelbert, full well thou know'st that I
No coward am: from power of mortal thing
I never shrunk. O might I still contend

With spear and helm, and shield and brandish'd blade!
But I must go where spear and helm and shield
Avail not:———
Where the skill'd warriour, cas'd in iron, stands
Defenceless as the poor uncrusted worm.
Some do conceit that disembodied spirits
Have in them more capacity of woe
Than flesh and blood maintain. I feel appall'd;
Yes, thane of Sexford, I do say appall'd.
For, ah! thou know'st not in how short a space
The soul of man within him may be changed.' P. 230.

Ethelwald, however, recovers, and proceeds from crime to crime: his friends, and even his brother, become the victims of his suspicion; and he appears, at last, a most bloody and merciless tyrant—the veriest and most fearful wretch in his dominions—made fearful by his own cruelties, and still more cruel by fear, and growing superstitious in proportion to his guilt. At length, a party of thanes, who have broken from prison, force their way into his chamber. Danger rouses the tyrant to his former courage, and he falls in arms.

'*Ethw.* Quick to thy villain's work, thou wordy coward,
Who in the sick man's chamber seek'st the fame
Thou dar'st not in th' embattled field attain!
I am prepar'd to front thee and thy mates
Were ye twice number'd o'er. (*Sets his back to a pillar, and puts himself into a posture of defence.*)

'*Her.* The sick man's chamber! darest thou, indeed,
Begrimed as thou art with blood and crimes,
'Gainst man committed, human rights assume?
Thou art a hideous and envenom'd snake,
Whose wounded length, even in his noisome hole,
Men fiercely hunt, for love of human kind;
And, wert thou scotch'd to the last ring of life,
E'en that poor remnant of thy curs'd existence
Should be trode out i' th' dust.' P. 357.

In this second play, horror is too unremittingly excited: the dying struggles of prince Edward are heard; his murderers enter all bloody from the work; and the dead body is produced. Ethelbert is executed on the stage; a curtain, indeed, conceals the blow, but '*the axe is seen lifted up above the curtain, and the sound of the stroke is heard;*' and his head is held up by the executioner. The pain which a scene like this would occasion to young and unhackneyed minds, who attend to the play, and feel as the author controls them, would be insupportable. The following scene presents images still more dreadful.

'*First Cairl.* Thou hast been o'er the field?
'*Third Cairl.* I have, good friend.
'*Sec. Cairl.* Thou'st seen a rueful sight.
'*Third Cairl.* Yes, I have seen that which no other sight
Can from my fancy wear. Oh! there be some
Whose writhed features, fix'd in all the strength
Of grappling agony, do stare upon you,
With their dead eyes half open'd.——
And there be some, stuck thro' with bristling darts,
Whose clenched hands have torn the pebbles up;
Whose gnashing teeth have ground the very sand.
Nay, some I've seen among those bloody heaps,
Defaced and 'reft e'en of the form of men,
Who in convulsive motion yet retain
Some shreds of life more horrible than death:
I've heard their groans, oh, oh!
'(*A voice from the ground.*) Baldwick!
'*Third Cairl.* What voice is that? it comes from some one near.
'*First Cairl.* See, yon stretch'd body moves its bloody hand:
It must be him.
'(*Voice again.*) Baldwick!
'*Third Cairl.* (*going up to the body from whence the voice came.*)
Who art thou, wretched man? I know thee not.
'*Voice.* Ah, but thou dost! I have sat by thy fire,
And heard thy merry tales, and shar'd thy meal.
'*Third Cairl.* Good holy saints! and art thou Athelbald?
Woe! woe is me to see thee in such case!
What shall I do for thee?
'*Voice.* If thou hast any love of mercy in thee,
Turn me upon my face that I may die;
For lying thus, see'st thou this flooded gash?
The glutting blood so bolsters up my life,
I cannot die.
'*Third Cairl.* I will, good Athelbald. Alack the day!
That I should do for thee so sad a service!
(*Turns the soldier on his face.*)
'*Voice.* I thank thee, friend, farewel! (*Dies.*)
'*Third Cairl.* Farewel! farewel! a merry soul thou wert,
And sweet thy ploughman's whistle in our fields.
'*Sec. Cairl.* (*starting with horror.*) Good heaven forefend! it moves!
'*First Cairl.* What dost thou see?
'*Sec. Cairl.* Look on that bloody corse, so smear'd and mangled,
That it has lost all form of what it was;
It moves! it moves! there is life in it still.
'*First Cairl.* Methought it spoke, but faint and low the sound.
'*Third Cairl.* Ha! didst thou hear a voice? we'll go to it.
Who art thou? Oh! who art thou? (*To a fallen warrior, who makes signs to him to pull something from his breast.*)

Yes, from thy breast; I understand the sign.
(*Pulling out a band or 'kerchief from his breast.*)
It is some maiden's pledge.
'*Fallen Warrior.* (*making signs.*) Upon mine arm,
I pray thee, on mine arm.
'*Third Cairl.* I'll do it, but thy wounds are past all binding.
'*Warrior.* She who will search for me doth know this sign.
'*Third Cairl.* Alack, alack! he thinks of some sad maid!
A rueful sight she'll see! He moves again:
Heaven grant him peace! I'd give a goodly sum
To see thee dead, poor wretch!
(*Enter a* Woman *wailing and wringing her hands.*)
'*Sec. Cairl.* Ha! who comes wailing here?
'*Third Cairl.* Some wretched mother who has lost her son:
I met her searching 'midst the farther dead,
And heard her piteous moan.
'*Mother.* I rear'd him like a little playful kid,
And ever by my side, where'er I went,
He blithely trotted. And full soon, I ween,
His little arms did strain their growing strength
To bear my burden. Ay, and long before
He had unto a stripling's height attain'd,
He ever would my widow's cause maintain
With all the steady boldness of a man.
I was no widow then.
'*Sec. Cairl.* Be comforted, good mother.
'*Mother.* What say'st thou to me? know'st thou where he lies?
If thou hast kindness in thee tell me truly;
For dead or living still he is mine all,
And let me have him.
'*Third Cairl.* (*aside to* Second.) Lead her away, good friend! I know her now.
Her boy is lying with the farther dead,
Like a fell'd sapling; lead her from the field.
(*Exeunt* Mother *and* Sec. Cairl.)
'*First Cairl.* But who comes now, with such distracted gait,
Tossing her snowy arms unto the wind,
And gazing wildly o'er each mangled corse?
(*Enter a* Young Woman *searching distractedly amongst the dead.*)
'*Young Wom.* No, no! thou art not here! thou art not here!
Yet if thou be like these I shall not know thee.
Oh! if they have so gash'd thee o'er with wounds
And marr'd thy comely form! I'll not believe it.
Until these very eyes have seen thee dead,
These very hands have press'd on thy cold heart,
I'll not believe it.
'*Third Cairl.* Ah, gentle maiden! many a maiden's love,
And many a goodly man lies on this field.
'*Young Wom.* I know, too true it is, but none like him.
Liest thou, indeed, amongst those grisly heaps?
O thou who ever wert of all most fair!

If heaven hath suffer'd this, amen, amen!
Whilst I have strength to crawl upon the earth
I'll search thee out, and be where'er thou art,
Thy mated love, e'en with the grisly dead.

(*Seaching again amongst the dead she perceives the band round the arm of the fallen* Warrior, *and uttering a loud shriek falls senseless upon the ground.*') P. 271.

We do not object to such scenes upon any principle of false French delicacy. French taste is as execrable as French morality; but the effect which miss Baillie wishes to produce is not produced in proportion to the violence of the means. We believe the poet willingly, while the slightest portion of pleasure is blended with the feelings which he excites; but the mind instinctively makes an effort to escape from pain; and scenes, like these, force upon it the recollection that the whole is fiction.

The comedy upon Ambition, if it be not comic, is something better. A man, who has lost an amiable wife, marries a worthless woman of title, for the sake of her connexions, that he may become a member of parliament and be knighted. The same folly which has led him to commit this act of wickedness, makes him the dupe of a projector, and ruins him. So far all is well hung together:—but then comes a rich uncle from beyond sea! The same passion is the foundation of one of Beaumont and Fletcher's plays—the Noble Gentleman: but we feel some pride in observing the great superiority of our contemporary.

We have pointed out the faults which exist, or seem to us to exist, in these plays, with some diffidence of our own judgement. It is not upon a first or second perusal, or upon a single opinion, that we venture to censure what has so deeply impressed, and will hereafter so often delight, us.

Miss Baillie's dramatic powers are of the highest order. With the miserable stage-writers of the day, it would be insult to compare her; nor is it much commendation to rank her above Young, and Rowe, and Southerne, and such writers, whose fame is held, like certain titles and estates, by the courtesy of England. Above these, above Beaumont and Fletcher we will not hesitate to rank her—above even Massinger; for she equals those writers in the beauty of detached passages; and, in true delineation of character and uniform merit, is as far their superior as she is in moral principles. Why should praise be awarded only to the dead? She has a near approach to Shakspeare; and, if not connected with him by blood, has something superior to a mere family likeness.

ART. XI.—*The Lyricks of Horace: comprising his Odes, Epodes, and secular Ode; in English Verse: with the Latin Text revised, and subjoined.* 2 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 15*s.* *Boards.* White. 1803.

A NEW translation of the odes of Horace! This is the third which, within five years, we have been called upon to censure—we say, to *censure;* for once more must we declare our most unqualified disapprobation of the attempt. A painter or an engraver may copy the picture which he could not have designed; but translation requires higher powers; it exacts a command of language and metre, which, if not equal to what the original poet possessed, never can fairly represent his ideas; and if they be, we could almost wish to see them directed to nothing but original composition. The task itself is above the capacity of men of middling talents, and beneath those of genius. But, of all authors, Horace is the most untranslatable. The spirit of his odes is like æther: if you attempt to pour it from one vessel into another, it evaporates. Translation injures Homer; but it ruins the Roman lyrist. The former is a beauty whose Grecian dress may be changed for one of coarser texture and less graceful modulation; but she is still graceful herself, and still beautiful. The latter is an Italian courtesan, whose ornaments being stript off, and the paint washed from her face, she becomes sickly, hollow-eyed, and spiritless. Dissect and mutilate Homer—like a dead elephant, the parts will still be great; the skeleton or the stuffed skin will still show how noble was the living beast. But touch Horace, and you brush the down from the butterfly's wing.

'The intention of the present work' (says the translator) 'is to give such a translation of the odes of Horace, as may preclude the necessity of notes: putting the Latin, and the English reader, as it were, upon the same footing; and leaving them, on the supposition that they are equally instructed, to form their own comments. The difficulty of such an attempt will be readily admitted; as, to this end, the translation ought not only to be faithful, but poetical; each English ode breathing the same spirit as the original Latin. With what degree of success the attempt is made, the judicious reader must determine. How far a work of this nature may be useful in schools, I mean for the upper classes, who, having gone through the drudgery of construction, now begin to study the genius of their author, I shall leave to the judgment of those entrusted with classical education.

'In the odes of Horace nineteen different kinds of metre occur. The translator has, in the course of this version, given one ode of each kind, in blank verse, of the same measure with the Latin, as nearly as the English language would allow. The first attempt so to translate any ode of Horace was made by our great poet, Milton.'

P. V.

Let us take the first ode, as a specimen of the rhymed translations.

'Sprung from sires of royal race,
Thou my guard, my boasted grace,
Lov'd Mæcenas! Some there are,
Whirling the Olympic car,
Who enjoy the dust they raise;
And whose wheels that almost blaze,
Passing the untouch'd goal nigh,
With the palm of victory,
Lift them to the high abodes
Of the earth-commanding gods.

'This man, by the fickle crowd
Rais'd, of threefold honours proud;
That, who in his gran'ry stores
All that's thresh'd on Libya's floors;
Him, who in paternal fields
Joyously the sickle wields,
Never shall thy pow'r persuade,
Rich as Attalus though made,
O'er Myrtoan seas to go,
Fearful in a Cyprian prow.

'Struggling with Icarian waves,
Afric's blast the merchant braves;
Then the rural scenes, and ease
Of his village home he'll praise;
Till, untutor'd want to bear,
He'll his shatter'd ships repair.
Some we find, who not disdain
Of old Massic bowls to drain;
And, to lengthen their regale,
Will the solid day curtail,
By some calm fount's sacred head,
Or beneath green arbute laid.
Many in the tented plain
Take delight; or in the strain
Of loud trump, with clarion clear;
And in war, the mother's fear.
Braving the inclement skies,
His fond spouse the hunter flies;
Whether, with his faithful hounds,
After the view'd stag he bounds;
Or pursues the Marsian boar,
That defies his toils' weak pow'r.

'Ivy, meed of learned heads,
Thee to heav'n's high synod leads:
Me cool groves, the Nymphs' light throng
Dancing Satyr tribes among,
Duly chanted in my strain,
Sever from the vulgar train;

If Euterpe condescend
Her enlivening flutes to lend,
And the tuneful Lesbian string
Polyhymnia deign to bring:
But shouldst thou enrol my name
Midst the bards of lyric fame,
Then my brows shall, as I rise,
Strike against the starry skies.' Vol. i. p. 3.

It is well that the original is annexed, as, without the Latin, the English would be sometimes unintelligible.

We will select a few scattered stanzas for such readers as are fond of riddles, to amuse themselves by unraveling.

'For his lov'd Ilia's bitter woes,
Boasting revenge, th' uxorious stream
The left-hand bank, broke loose, o'erflows,
Incurring the dread Godhead's blame.

'Thinn'd by their parents' guilt, youth's train
Shall hear our shameful battles told;
Of swords which civic murder stain
Shall hear, fit scourge for Persians bold.' Vol. i. p. 11.

'Brave, and victor of the foe,
All thy desp'rate bands could do,
Thou leading on their fleets, their horse,
Tuneful Varius shall display,
Soaring in his epic lay
With pinions of Mæonian force.' Vol. i. p. 27.

'Thy minutes scorn not, happy boy,
In dance and sweet love to employ,
While stern hoar-age youth flies.' Vol. i. p. 39.

'Venus, mother of the Loves,
Who frequently so cruel proves;
With the youthful Deity,
Offspring of Theban Semele;
And licentious wantonness,
Bid me again Love's pow'r confess.
Glycera, who shines more bright
Than Parian marble's purest white,
Fires my bosom: me too fires
Her petulance which so inspires;
With the charms her face displays,
On which too dang'rous 'tis to gaze.' Vol. i. p. 79.

'Thy barr'd windows less frequently shake
With hard blows of the frolicksome rake,

Who no more strives thy slumbers to break:
Its threshold thy door keeps,

'That on hinges so pliant would move:
Less and less the sad ditty you prove
Of: "While starves the night thro' thy true love,
His Lydia unkind sleeps!"

'Thou, grown old, in thy turn shalt lament
The rude sparks; while thy sad steps are bent
To lone alleys, when moonlight is spent,
And bleak the North-wind sweeps.

'Then such hot flame, such lustful desire
As is wont the mad horse-dams to fire,
Shall thy ulcerous liver acquire,
While constant thine eye weeps.

'With fresh ivy gay youth will be drest,
With dark myrtle their brows they'll invest;
But down Hebrus, of winter the guest,
Old wreaths throw in dry heaps.' Vol. i. P. 97.

Enough! Enough! we need bring forward no more counts in the present indictment. Guilty of high treason against English verse and English syntax—guilty of wilful murder upon the body of Quintus Horatius Flaccus.

Now then for the specimens of blank-verse, 'of the same measure with the Latin, as nearly as the English language would allow.'

'The West-wind's glad return, and spring sharp winter thaw;
And engines launch the dry hulks in the wave:
Nor at his hearth the hind, nor cattle in their stalls
Now joy; nor whiten with hoar frosts the plains.' Vol. i. P. 21.

'By all the Gods, pray tell,
Why Sybaris with love you to his ruin haste!
Why, Lydia, does he shun
The sunny field, to dust and heat habituated?
Why soldier-like not ride
Among his compeers, or the mouths of Gallic steeds
Break in with bitted reins?
Why does he dread to feel the yellow Tiber? why
Like viper's blood avoid
Cautious the wrestler's oil? Nor livid are his arms
With weapons borne; who, fam'd,
The discus oft, the spear beyond its bound oft threw.
Why doth he lie conceal'd,
As sea-born Thetis' son was said to do, ere Troy's
Lamented fun'rals; lest
Man's garb should force him to the fight, and Lycian bands?' Vol. i. P. 35.

The fourteenth ode is in the metre of Collins's Ode to Evening, but most wretchedly written.

'O ship, shall fresh waves bear thee back to sea!
O what art thou about? Firmly remain
In port. Dost thou not see
Thy side stript of each oar,

'And thy mast shiver'd by the furious South?
Thy sail-yards shriek too, and without its cords
Thy keel can scarce endure
Surge most impetuous.' Vol. i. p. 59.

'Before the sacred vine, Varus, no tree shouldst thou
Plant on kind Tibur's soil, or round Catillus' walls.' Vol. i. p. 77.

'Thee, measurer of the sea, of earth, and of the sands
Which know not number, of poor dust
Some scanty portions near Matinus' coast enclose,
Archytas! nor it thee avails
To have th' aerial roofs explor'd, and with thy mind
Trac'd the arch'd pole, about to die.' Vol. i. p. 107.

'In adverse fortune fail not to maintain
An equal mind; in prosp'rous fortune too
Alike from joy that's prodigal
Refrain; O Dellius, who art sure to die!' Vol. i. p. 155.

'More safe, Licinius, wouldst thou live, by not
Tempting for ever the wide sea; nor yet
Hugging too close, while rocks thou cautious dread'st,
Shores that are dang'rous.' Vol. i. p. 183.

This the author calls a Sapphic! We seriously recommend him to consult Mr. Maule, the aurist. Something must be wrong in his ears.

'Not in my mansion glare
Or ivory, or gilded roof:
Not beams Hymettian rest
On pillars in far Afric hewn.' Vol. i. p. 225.

'If at its source thou hadst the Tanais quaff'd,
Wedded, O Lyce, to some barb'rous mate;
Yet might'st thou grieve, me, stretch'd at thy rude doors,
To native North-blasts to expose.' Vol. ii. p. 63.

'Tis for the wretched, not t' indulge in love,
Nor with rich wine wash care away; or feel
Dejected at the lash of a sharp uncle's tongue.' Vol. ii. p. 75.

'A monument I've rais'd than brass
More lasting, than the royal site
Of pyramids more high; which storms
And the vain North can't harm, nor lapse
Of num'rous ages, nor times' flight.' Vol. ii. P. 157.

'Him, O Melpomene! whom thou
Hast at his birth once mark'd with eye benign,
Not Isthmian strife shall signalize
A wrestler; neither the courageous steed
Him in Achaian car shall draw,
A conqueror; nor him, a chieftain grac'd
With Delian foliage, shall war's feats,
Because the vauntful threats of kings he spurn'd,
Exhibit at the Capitol.' Vol. ii. P. 179.

'The snows pass off: now to each field returns
Grass, and to trees their leaf.' Vol. ii. P. 205.

'When that Cæcubian kept for festive treats,
Joy'd at victorious Cæsar,
Shall I beneath thy high dome (so Jove wills)
Quaff with thee, dear Mæcenas:
The lyre, awak'ning song, combin'd with flutes;
That Doric, and these Phrygian?' Vol. ii. P. 295.

'Pettius, it joys me not as heretofore
Soft verses to indite,
Disquieted with cruel love:
That love, which so endeavour'd to inflame
Me, beyond other youths,
With ev'ry beauty I beheld.
This is the third December, since I ceas'd
For Inachy to rage,
That has the woods of honours stript.
Ah, me! (for of such folly I'm asham'd)
What a town's-talk I've been!
And of those feasts I do repent
At which my silence, and my languishment,
The love-sick swain declar'd,
Together with my deep-fetch'd sighs.' Vol. ii. P. 303.

'A horrid tempest has condens'd the heav'ns;
Show'rs, and snows bring the sky down:
Now the seas, now the woods
Sound with the Thracian North-blast. Let us, friends,
Take of the day advantage:

While yet our limbs are nerv'd,
And it befits, let Age his furl'd brow smooth.
Wine prest, when my Torquatus
Was consul, bring thou forth.' Vol. ii. P. 313.

'Wherefore voluptuous sloth has such oblivion spread
Throughout my inmost senses,
As tho' with thirsty throat those goblets I had drain'd
Bringing Lethæan slumbers,
Courteous Mæcenas, thou dost vex me, asking oft.
For, to their end to perfect
Commenc'd iambics, me a pow'r, a pow'r forbids,
That song I lately promis'd!' Vol. ii. P. 317.

'Another age in civic broils is wearing now away,
And Rome is overthrown herself by her own pow'r;
Which not the neighb'ring Marsi e'er were able to reduce,
Nor yet the threat'nings of Porsenna's Tuscan band,
Nor Capua's rival bravery, nor valiant Spartacus,
Nor false Allobrogian for revolution ripe.' Vol. ii. P. 323.

'Why pour intreaties upon unlockt ears?
Not rocks to naked mariners more deaf
Does wintry Neptune lash with rising surge.
What, at Cotyttian mysteries reveal'd,
At free Love's rite, unpunish'd shalt thou laugh?' Vol. ii. P. 341.

These abortions we have bottled for the inspection of the curious. Let it not, however, be supposed that such metres are incapable of harmony, because this wretched translator, who can write no metre, has tortured language into such shapes. The rhymeless stanza, which Collins has made popular, is uncouth and unintelligible in Milton.

ART. XII.—*Sermons on various Subjects, preached at the Octagon Chapel, Bath. By the Rev. John Gardiner, D. D.* 8*vo.* 8*s. Boards.* Hatchard. 1802.

THESE discourses are of various degrees of merit. From the subject of the first, we augured ill of the whole volume; for what can be a more strange topic for a minister of the Gospel to discuss in his pulpit, than the comparative merits of the two governments of France and England? The chief defects in the monarchical government of France, both with regard to matters of state and matters of religion, were notorious to the French nation, and severely felt by

all. The nobility had become atheistic from the evident absurdities that were established in the national faith; while the middle orders had grown rich, and felt the absurdity which separated them from the nobler class. This change in the national sentiments was known to men of discernment fifty years ago; but the French court not only neglected the proper period of applying the antidote, but in many instances increased the evil, and precipitated the catastrophe that ensued, by the part they espoused in the American war, and the encouragement given to republican ideas.

At the commencement of the revolution, indeed, hopes were entertained of some melioration in the state of the country.

'But, alas! how soon was the flattering illusion to vanish? How soon was the lofty voice of exultation and joy to be exchanged for the low murmurs of mortification and regret? The placid stream which by gentle swells might have diffused fertility and chearfulness on the adjacent soil, and have afforded a prospect highly gratifying to the eye—became a rapid torrent, whose tremendous inundations bore down every thing before them, and exhibited a scene uniformly disgusting—a scene of misery, devastation, and ruin. No sooner had heaven conferred on this people her most precious boon, than they converted it into abuse against its author. Considering the progress they had made, they might at least have paused a while—they might have contemplated with gravity and awe the momentous work in which they were engaged—but they rushed on madly and precipitately; they bounded wantonly over all barriers in pursuit of a phantom, which continued to elude their grasp. Instead of confining themselves to a prudent limitation or just regulation of the powers of the monarch, they abolished monarchy altogether. Instead of maturely examining into, and removing the defects of the ancient structure, they inconsiderately pulled it at once to the ground—and attempted to raise another of such heterogeneous materials, that it would not form a solid and compact mass; it tottered at the foundation, and threatened its projectors with ruin. Under a pretence of acquiring new lights, and making new discoveries in the moral world, they set at nought all the labours and researches of antiquity. The settled principles on which civil society had hitherto existed, in their rage for novelty they overturned—In establishing the rights they forgot the dispositions of man. Was man naturally inclined to do what he ought, undoubtedly too great freedom of action could not be allowed—but since the contrary is the case, since it has been found that men left to their own wills are prone to error and mischief, it has been admitted, that the only parent of genuine liberty, is rational restraint—and that to secure the undisturbed possession of some rights, a surrender of others must be made.' P. 16.

The preacher has, however, in other discourses, evinced

juster notions of his duty, and the high character in which he appears when addressing a Christian audience.

'In this place' (he says) 'we stand by the authority and in the presence of one who is no respecter of persons, in whose sight all mankind are equal, the same compound of dust and ashes, of misery and corruption; and who has no love nor hatred, no predilection nor aversion, but for righteousness and iniquity. The majesty and sanctity, then, of him whom we serve will not permit us here to make honourable mention of any thing but of virtue, nor dare we represent persons as illustrious, unless their principles and conduct appear to be religious. Far from being servile panegyrists of the great, the ministers of a crucified Christ know no one after the flesh—they consider titles, riches and honours, in themselves as empty vanities and trifles; nay, frequently worse than trifles, in being rendered vile and contemptible by the use their possessors make of them.' P. 258.

With this opinion of his duty, he may be justly vindicated in guarding his hearers against the pretensions set up in favour of natural religion; and, though we cannot think the pulpit the place for a eulogium on an author so replete with profaneness and indecency as our immortal dramatist, yet the abominable trash imported from Germany, and dressed up by no mean hands for an English audience, is a proper subject of reprobation.

'What then, have we not to fear for the depravation of the moral taste, as well as the intellectual soundness of the present age? Nay, what a sorry imputation have not both already incurred by suffering in a moment of sentimental delirium, the sublime productions of the immortal father of the drama, our country's glory, whom no Briton ever names or thinks on without a mixture of pride, veneration and love—by suffering, I say, his works to be superseded in a manner by the flimsy, whining, ephemeral productions of men calling themselves illuminated philosophers, whose professed ambition it is to raise the temple of reason on the ruins of the altar of Christ? It is true, (and we cannot be too thankful for it,) that the minds of our mixed or popular audiences, are not yet prepared to receive with patience the open avowal of such an attempt; but for that very reason its mischief the more challenges our vigilance—there is a greater cause for anxiety and alarm. It is a poison which is operating secretly and slowly, and hence but too securely. The most specious artifices are employed to conceal its effects, and to make it allure whilst it destroys. All the aid of pageantry and splendour of machinery that can dazzle the eye and captivate the imagination is called into its service; to impose on the understanding we have an ostentatious parade of piety. Solemn appeals are made to the God of nature in the most fascinating and highly finished periods. And then to reproach the morals of Christians, the self-taught barbarian, the child of nature is represented in an array of virtue, which neither history nor experience will sanction. Sentiments are put into his mouth which neither the author nor his English satellite with all their pene-

*tr*ation and genius, could have discovered in their full extent but for that revealed will of God which they thus obliquely try to depreciate.

'It can afford no pleasure to a ministry or brotherly love to expose particular works or their authors in this place to public animadversion; but who are to be advocates in the cause of religion if its ministers betray a timid indifference when its bulwarks are clandestinely assailed? Who is to preserve a citadel if the garrison sleep whilst a powerful enemy is at the gate? And what is to be feared for the sacred and civil constitution of a state, when senators whose wisdom and power are pledged to be employed in establishing or ameliorating the laws, exercise their ingenuity and skill in applying foreign engines to undermine their foundation or weaken their influence? Ought men who from their eminent talents should arise the first to discountenance principles which have ruined so many other countries, to be the most forward in giving them even a partial or sinister support in their own? And however charitably we may be disposed to construe the views of such, would it not be a criminal pusillanimity to conceal the fatal effects that may flow from them?' P. 233.

Before the audience of the Octagon-chapel at Bath, these allusions to the occurrences of the day might, perhaps, have been introduced, and be found calculated to keep up an attention which is disposed to droop on hearing displayed the more general and consoling topics of the Gospel. Yet the preacher who adopts this method of preaching, must be contented with the ephemeral applause of his hearers, and not expect to perpetuate that praise by means of the press. Those who have heard these discourses will be gratified in the perusal of them; and they bear sufficient testimony of the zeal of the author in the duties of his sacred avocation.

ART. XIII.—*An Apology, for differing in Opinion from the Authors of the Monthly and Critical Reviews: on* 1. *Literary Communications.* 2. *Variolous and Vaccine Inoculation.* 3. *Dr. Jenner's Discovery of Vaccine Inoculation.* 4. *The Means of preventing Febrile Contagion.* 5. *The Establishment of charitable Institutions. By John Coakley Lettsom, M. & LL. D.* 8*vo.* 2*s.* Mawman. 1803.

IF any spirit has been moved on this occasion, it is one of disappointed vanity and heart-felt mortification. Accustomed to flattery in one circle, and forbearance in another, it is a crime to 'hint a fault, or hesitate dislike.' Indignation, imperfectly smothered under the humble title of 'an Apology,' and the modest expression of 'a feeble voice,' is ready to burst forth, and can be calmed by no common

submission. We mean not to stoop to any; but will tell Dr. Lettsom his faults, as well as any other author; nor will we conceal that mean mark of a little mind—overweening vanity. We saw it in its germ, have watched its opening bud, till it is expanded into its blossom. The literary life of Dr. Lettsom may be well styled the *progress* of vanity: the termination is yet to come; but we have ample materials for the subject.

We first offended him by recommending a mean of preserving from infection, which might, in his opinion, encourage dram-drinking. We *know* that many have been preserved from fevers by it; and *believe* that it will not be injurious, except where a strong propensity prevails, which would seek for other motives, were this not offered. This method has done more service than the absurd analogical thermometer, which admits of no application, but what might have been offered in a few words.

The second offence was laughing at the ridiculously meretricious style of his pamphlet in favour of the cow-pox. It is before the public; and we still say, that the style is unworthy of a philosopher and a physician. It is peculiarly disgraceful to a sect which anxiously disclaims every ornament of language and manner. We asserted that Dr. Lettsom stated his motive to be the satisfaction of his friends, who would form no opinion till he had given *his*. He has produced the sentence, and it still says so. The context expresses it still more strongly. We laughed at the affected expression of 'periphery of the indelible ink,' &c. They are instances of the bathos which will be laughed at till the *contrast* is forgotten. 'To rouse attention,' he tells us in one passage, that 'he adopted a more impressive tone.'—The impression it made will not soon cease to excite ridicule.

With respect to the cow-pox, the more grievous offence, we need not repeat what we have already said. Did the question rest on what Dr. Jenner offered, we would still, as we then did, consider this vicarious disease as insufficient, and the pretence as undeserving notice. Dr. Jenner published the fact, *already known*, and pointed out the application. The doctrine was established, and cleared of its difficulties by Dr. Woodville and Dr. Pearson. Yet Dr. Lettsom is angry that we will not worship his idol, when its divinity and power are abolished.

Dr. Lettsom may, in future, save himself the parenthesis '(by whom?)' He does not want the answer: it was asked *ad captandum vulgus.*

One other offence remains. We did not perceive the

likeness of the *silhouettes*, and it has called forth the most disgraceful insinuations. As we never visit Billinsgate, we cannot reply to these 'flowers of speech;' and, in this part of the contest, we can only say—as a gentleman once did when attacked on the Thames with similar language—'Go, my good friend, you have the best of it.' On consulting the thermometer—for it again makes its appearance at page 46—we could not find 'abuse' among the effects; but we conclude it must be *below* 0.

We believe we first saw Dr. Lettsom in the year 1769, and will say nothing of the alligator stuffed, or the show of empty bottles, or pickled serpents. Since that time, we have seen him sometimes more nearly, sometimes at a greater distance; but we cannot add, that, from what we have seen, our respect for his talents has increased. We have sufficiently defended ourselves; nor will any invectives, or any insinuations of his '*feeble* voice' (feeble indeed) draw from us another word. In the cause of science, we will speak boldly; and, when we again find him poaching in other grounds, we will, as we have done, expose him.

Mr. Creaser's pamphlet has just reached us, and will be noticed in our next. Attacked as we are on all sides, we have still, we trust, like the porcupine, quills for every assailant.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS, &c.

ART. 14.—*Observations and Reflexions on the Impropriety of Interfering with the internal Policy of other States. By the Rev. William Benson, A. M. of St. Mary Hall, Oxon. In a Letter addressed to the Right Hon. Henry Addington, Chancellor of the Exchequer.* 8vo. Debrett. 1802.

SOME remarks lately made in the London newspapers, derogatory to the character of the chief consul of France, form the object of this author's censure and alarms, and have engaged him in this persuasion to preserve peace in the true spirit of peace. All this is well; but the offending parties will not perhaps so clearly perceive that they are bound to a gentle and forbearing conduct by the sacrament of baptism,

which the author has very ſtrangely introduced as having ſome connexion, we know not what, with the element of water which divides France from England.

ART. 15.—*Review of Public Affairs ſince the Commencement of the preſent Century.* 8*vo.* Knight *and* Triphook. 1802.

The principal object of this Review is to defend the conduct of the new adminiſtration in concluding peace with France. The author's tone is moderate and argumentative; but, as the objections which have been offered to the peace are chiefly of the *proſpective* kind, the time is not yet fully arrived when we can judge fairly between the contending parties. In the mean while, it will not be denied that our miniſters were juſtified in attempting to negotiate, when they contemplated the complete annihilation of the continental and maritime coalition which had been formed againſt France, the new vigour aſſumed by the government of that country, the ſucceſſive deſertion of the great powers with which we had been in offenſive alliance, the inſignificance of thoſe objects which, by continuing the war, were yet attainable; and the alarming increaſe of our own debt, and conſequently of our taxes. Theſe our author has fairly ſtated as ſufficient grounds to render peace deſirable; and the praiſe he beſtows on the manner and terms according to which our miniſters negotiated, is certainly not overſtrained. It is utterly inconceivable that we can enter upon a new war with more diſadvantages, than we ſhould have experienced, had we continued the laſt, upon the principles, and with the adminiſtration, by whom it was conducted.

ART. 16.—*A Treatiſe on the Functions and Duties of a Conſtable; containing Details and Obſervations intereſting to the Public, as they relate to the Corruption of Morals, and the Protection of the peaceful Subject againſt Penal and Criminal Offences. By P. Colquhoun, Eſq. LL.D. &c.* 8*vo.* Mawman. 1803.

The utility of compilations of this kind is too obvious to require demonſtration; and the preſent is recommended by an arrangement peculiarly convenient for conſultation on the quickeſt emergencies. So much depends on the activity, zeal, and integrity, of the inferior police officers, that too much pains cannot be taken to make them acquainted with the nature of their office, and the bounds of their power. Theſe are explained in the preſent treatiſe with brevity and preciſion; but we cannot peruſe the whole ſyſtem of our police without lamenting, with our author, its many imperfections in *practice.* One reaſon of this ſeems the multiplication, of late years, of the duties of a conſtable; and another is perhaps the want of a proper gradation of official authority from the chief-magiſtrate to the loweſt officer. Much likewiſe will be found to depend on the ſelection of fit and proper perſons to diſcharge the office of conſtable: the practice of *ſubſtitutes* is liable to many objections, which have not eſcaped the attention of this indefatigable magiſtrate; and the hints which he has occaſionally thrown out on this and other ſubjects connected with a well-regulated and *effective* police, will, we hope, lead to ſome ſalutary changes. In the mean

time, there can be no member of the community to whom this treatiſe will not appear highly intereſting.

ART. 17.—*A Political Eſſay on the Commerce of Portugal and her Colonies, particularly of Braſil in South America. By J. J. da Cunha de Azeredo Coutinho, Biſhop of Fernambucho, and Fellow of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Liſbon. Tranſlated from the Portugueſe.* 8vo. 5s. *Boards.* Robinſons.

This eſſay relates chiefly to the Portugueſe colony of Braſil; and the author, who has long reſided there, continues to do ſo. The value and importance of the Braſils are very conſiderable; and a moſt enlightened liberal policy dictates all our author's advice.

With reſpect to Great Britain, independently of her general connexion with Portugal, and the neceſſity of ſecuring her from the *protection* of thoſe who wiſh to hold her in the ſame vaſſalage as Spain and Holland, the hemp and the timber of Braſil may be of great importance. The peace, it is obſerved, which France and Spain condeſcended to conclude with Portugal, was inſidious and deluſive; haſtily completed, leſt Great Britain ſhould take the Portugueſe colonies under her guarantee. As this laſt meaſure may again become neceſſary, the tranſlator offers this work to the Engliſh reader, to point out the value of this portion of America. It indeed appears truly important.

RELIGION.

ART. 18.—*A Sermon preached at the Pariſh Church of St. Andrew, in the city of Norwich, upon June* 1, *being the Day of General Thankſgiving for Peace. By the Rev. Lancaſter Adkin, A. M. and publiſhed at the Requeſt of the Pariſhioners.* 4to. 1s. Rivingtons. 1802.

A rhapſody on the peace, which, however ſuited to the cathedral where it was delivered, will find few readers out of the dioceſe. 'The dreadful plot in Dublin—the fleet of infidels in Bantry-Bay—worldly-minded faithleſs allies, and the ſudden death of the Ruſſian, their moſt powerful ſupporter—the little fleet conducted by Cornwallis—the navies of Holland, France, and Spain—Jervis—circulating caſh—mutiny—De Winter—lord Duncan,' &c. &c. &c. Surely the congregation muſt have been more deeply impreſſed with the glories of war than the bleſſings of tranquillity, from ſuch references and arguments. We are obliged to the preacher, however, for giving us the motives for what has generally been called the diſmiſſion of the miniſter from office, but which is here more gently denominated his reſignation. We may preſume that the writer had his intelligence from the late ſecretary of war, who was then member for Norwich; for he exhorts us

'To pay the tribute of grateful reſpect ſo juſtly due to that aſtoniſhing man, that perſevering ſtatesman, and to his able aſſiſtants, who, having guided the helm with ſo much ſteadineſs and ſkill when the veſſel was in danger (even to the ſight of haven, whither ſhe was bound), reſigned the fruit of their hard labors with a virtuous ſelf-denial; and from a diſintereſted attachment to their country's wiſhes,

that there might be no obſtacle to the deſired reſt from bloodſhed, and from increaſing burthens. The revengeful enemy, prodigal alike of human life, as ſmarting from his powerful exertions, acknowledged his merit, by refuſing ſeriouſly to negociate till his oſtenſible influence was removed.' P. 8.

The greater part of the nation ſeems very well ſatisfied, that not only his oſtenſible, but his real, influence is removed; and, if this act be owing to the revengeful enemy, it is a revenge which muſt nevertheleſs be regarded as an act of kindneſs.

ART. 19.—*A Thankſgiving Sermon for the Peace: preached in the Pariſh Church of Stockton upon Tees, June* 1, 1802. *By John Brewſter, M. A. &c. Publiſhed by Requeſt.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* Rivingtons. 1802.

The writer proves, in this diſcourſe, that our miſeries have ariſen from ourſelves; and that our deliverance is to be aſcribed alone to the benevolent and unmerited aſſiſtance of God. For a cauſe adequate 'to that dread exploſion which overturned the church of France,' we are properly referred to her doctrines: and we ſincerely believe there is real ground of alarm to every ſincere proteſtant who duly weighs the following facts, with their probable conſequences.

'Events have been brought to paſs, the moſt unforeſeen and unexpected. Anarchy and atheiſm have been found ſo deſtructive to the human race, that the moſt diſcordant means have been uſed to repel them. We have ſeen the arms of the deſcendant of Henry VIII. a pious and a proteſtant prince, employed to reſtore the dominion of Rome: we have ſeen Chriſtians, even in the native land of Chriſtianity, fighting under the banner of Mahomet. Theſe are a few, among the many unprecedented occurrences of the war. When we view them, we are ſtruck with the myſterious leſſon which they convey. Myſterious indeed to us, who "ſee through a glaſs darkly;" but opening, no doubt, ſome wonderful changes in the economy of the world, preparatory to the return of him who proclaimed "peace on earth, good-will towards men." P. 22.

ART. 20.—*The Neceſſity of future Gratitude and Circumſpection, to prove a due Senſe of paſt Mercies. A Sermon preached on Tueſday, the firſt of June,* 1802; *being the Day appointed by Royal Authority, for a General Thankſgiving to Almighty God, for the Return of Peace. By the Rev. Sir Adam Gordon, Bart. M. A. &c.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Rivingtons. 1802.

A long ſtory about monopoliſers and methodiſm. Though ſome of the apoſtles were at firſt taken from the lower walks of life, yet, ſays the preacher, they 'did not profeſſedly follow all kinds of low employments (as do many itinerant teachers of the preſent day), no more than the regularly eſtabliſhed clergy of our own church.' Yet, as far as we have any information from Scripture, nothing can more reſemble the conduct of theſe itinerant teachers, with reſpect to manual labour, than the conduct of the early itinerant teachers of Chriſtianity. We read of their going out to catch fiſh, and of their manufacturing tents; occupations, which, nevertheleſs, were not conceived to degrade

them in the eyes of the early Chriſtians. The faſtidiouſneſs of our modern brethren has, however, produced a different eſtimation, and induced them to ſet an additional value upon other employments, which are more conſiſtent with worldly honour. The extraordinary price of animal food, though there be a ſmaller demand for the navy now than of late, may eaſily be accounted for without referring to 'ſecret machinations of worthleſs characters.' When there are ſo many mills for making money in the country, it cannot be ſuppoſed that men will give as many pounds of beef for paper as they did formerly for real caſh. The paper ſyſtem has deſtroyed the old regular ſupply of the markets, determined on the quantity of ſtock, and the wants of the breeder. The banker is at hand to ſupply the wants of the latter; and the time of bringing his cattle to market reſts at preſent entirely with himſelf. But ſurely theſe are not fit ſubjects to be engrafted on a thankſgiving ſermon.

ART. 21. *Performance of Vows, the True Thankſgiving. A Sermon preached at Chriſt Church, Surrey, on Tueſday, June* 1, 1802, *the Day of General Thankſgiving for the Peace; and at St. Michael's, Crooked Lane, on Monday, June* 21, 1802, *before the Worſhipful Company of Fiſhmongers, being their Election Day. By Thomas Ackland, M. A. &c.* 4*to.* 1*s.* Rivingtons. 1802.

'My brethren, I ſay, as I hope and truſt, let it be conſidered and remembered, that although we have obſerved,—it is true, and God be thanked, yea, let God's holy name' (be thanked, we preſume); 'it is true, I ſay, we have all reaſon to praiſe the majeſty of our God for the invaluable bleſſing of national peace.' We agree entirely in this *ipſe dixit* of the preacher; but, if he had confined his '*I ſay*' to the pulpit or the hall of the fiſhmongers' company, the public at large would have no great reaſon to regret the loſs of this diſcourſe.

ART. 22. *A Sermon, preached in the Cathedral Church of St. Paul, London, on Thurſday, June* 3, 1802, *before the Society of Patrons of the Anniverſary of the Charity Schools. By John Pridden, M. A. F. S. A. &c. Publiſhed at the Requeſt, and for the Benefit of the Society. With an Appendix, containing a brief Account of the Society.* 4*to.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Nichols and Son. 1803.

This ſermon was compoſed at a very ſhort notice, and publiſhed at the requeſt of the ſociety before whom, as well as before ſeven thouſand charity-children who attended upon the occaſion, it was preached. The Song of Solomon affords the text; the love of Chriſt to the church is celebrated; and England is ſuppoſed to have been preſerved from the danger which threatened her, on account of her extenſive charity and benevolence.

ART. 23. *Divine Authority, conferred by Epiſcopal Ordination, neceſſary to a legitimate Diſcharge of the Chriſtian Miniſtry: A Sermon preached before the Univerſity of Oxford, May* 16, 1802. *By George Stanley Faber, A. M. &c.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Rivingtons.

The title-page announces the old diſpute between epiſcopacy and preſbyterianiſm, the two modes of church government eſtabliſhed by

law in this kingdom. Now, as the law of the land equally eſtabliſhes both, and defines the boundaries within which each ſhall exerciſe its authority, it ſeems rather incongruous for a miniſter of the ſouthern part of the iſland to claim all the divine authority for his own order, and to deny it to the miniſters of the ſiſter church. The writer is not, however, diſpoſed to aſſert his claims by a breach of Chriſtian peace and union; and it muſt give pleaſure to every reader to peruſe the following ſentiments delivered from the pulpit of the univerſity of Oxford, and ſanctioned by the *imprimatur* of the vice-chancellor.

'Permit me however here to obſerve, that the proper mode of reclaiming thoſe, who have erred, is calm, gentle, diſpaſſionate expoſtulation; not fiery, overbearing, tyrannical invectives. The latter diſgraceful practice is equally unworthy of a man, and of a Chriſtian: it irritates, inſtead of ſoftening; it provokes, inſtead of appeaſing animoſities. Perſecution, that moſt favourite child of Satan, conſtantly makes either a martyr, or a hypocrite. It is a deviliſh engine, fit only for the nefarious purpoſes of pagan and papal tyranny; an engine, which ought to be rejected with abhorrence, and viewed with deteſtation, by every pious proteſtant.' P. 20.

ART. 24.—*The Anniverſary Sermon of the Royal Humane Society, preached at Groſvenor Chapel, April* 4; *and, with local Alterations, at Holy Roods, Southampton, June* 20; *and at St. Helier's, in the Iſland of Jerſey, July* 18, 1802. *By R. Valpy, D. D. F. A. S. &c. To which is added, an Appendix of Miſcellaneous Obſervations on Reſuſcitation. By the Society.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Rivingtons. 1802.

In a dedication to the king, the preacher informs us that he is a Jerſey-man, and of courſe an anti-Gallican and anti-regicide. Much equally ſuperfluous matter is introduced into the notes; but the very laudable efforts in ſupport of a moſt uſeful inſtitution, ſhould diſarm criticiſm of all its ſeverity; and we feel great pleaſure in obſerving that the royal humane ſociety continues to receive that patronage from the public to which it is ſo juſtly entitled.

ART. 25.—*Counſel for Chriſtians. A Sermon: preached in the Pariſh Churches of Saint Mary the Virgin, Aldermanbury, and Holy Trinity, in the Minories, on Sunday, October* 24, 1802. *By the Rev. R. Caddick, M. A.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Rivingtons.

This is a probationary diſcourſe comprising much good counſel. The following remarks, from a candidate, deſerve the conſideration of every perſon who is concerned in parochial elections.

'The circumſtance which at preſent occupies your attention, namely, the ſelection of a miniſter, will, I hope, be under the immediate direction of God; that he may lead your choice to one who may be ſenſible of the arduous undertaking.

'I will now requeſt your patience whilſt I mention one thing more; which is, that as you are brethren who ought to be of one flock and of one family, a party ſpirit may not prevail with that bitterneſs, which too frequently accompanies occaſions of this nature.

'Every one, in a caſe of ſuch importance, in which each individual

is so much concerned, should be allowed to follow the leadings of conscience; and I am sure it is paying ourselves but a bad compliment to suppose that we would wish, directly or indirectly, to influence our neighbours to go against its dictates.

'The candidates must all feel greatly favored by the support of friends; it must excite our gratitude to the highest degree; but I am sure every Christian minister will be grieved, should it be productive of animosity.' P. 46.

ART. 26.—*A Sermon, preached before John Sayer, Esq. Commissary for the Parts of Surrey, and the Clergy of the Deaneries of Southwark and Ewell, in Surrey, at the Annual Visitation holden at Kingston-upon-Thames, on the 29th of May, 1800; and published by their Desire: by William Foster, D. D.* 4*to.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Payne.

A proper degree of moderation in the expression of our sentiments, and the right of government to interpose, with a view of inhibiting or restraining them on certain occasions, are inculcated in this discourse, which treats, with great liberality, the event solemnised on the day in which the meeting of the clergy was held. To the following observation, we give our hearty concurrence. 'Whilst Christianity so forcibly recommends peace, moderation, obedience, and subjection to the laws of one's country, it cautiously avoids, for itself, any discussion of, and equally seems to prohibit, in respect to its teachers, all interference in questions of government.'

MEDICINE, &c.

ART. 27.—*An Essay on the Yellow Fever of Jamaica, dedicated, by Permission, to his Royal Highness the Duke of Clarence. By David Grant, M. D.* 8*vo.* 3*s.* Robinsons.

It is not easy to add to the history of the disease, or to exaggerate its fatal influence. Dr. Grant writes with an apparent knowledge of his subject; and his practice appears judicious and discriminated. It consists in previous bleeding, but not in a very violent degree; and this evacuation is confined to the two first days. He relieves the bowels by an active laxative, and then immediately orders the bark. Mercury, he thinks, is useless or injurious. In the contest respecting this medicine, we cannot engage, as experience can afford us no assistance. Some judicious arguments against the abolition of the slave-trade are prefixed.

ART. 28.—*Strictures on Dr. Grant's Essay on Yellow Fever. By Thomas Dancer, M. D.* 12*mo.* 6*d.* Murray *and* Highley. 1802.

Dr. Grant opposed the treatment of the yellow-fever by mercury, and adopted the plan of Rush. We can hardly conceive that a difference of opinion could have excited so much severity as these Strictures display; and indeed it appears from the work itself that the provocation was a different one. Dr. Grant, however, is treated with little mercy; and numerous are his grammatical and other errors, which are pointed out in this little pamphlet.

ART. 29.—*The English Olive-Tree; or, a Treatise on the Use of Oil and the Air Bath: with Miscellaneous Remarks on the Prevention and Cure of various Diseases, Gout, Rheumatism, Diabetes, &c. By the Rev. William Martin Trinder. The second Edition, much enlarged.* 8vo. 5s. *sewed.* Dwyer. 1802.

This singular farrago of medicine and divinity does not require any extensive examination. It is desultory and superficial; nor will the medical student, or the practitioner, reap any benefit from the practical directions, even with the formulæ annexed. Our readers are acquainted, we suppose, with the air-bath, which consists in exposing the body to the air of the room, or, in inclement weather, in suffering the vapours to escape, which exhale from the body while in bed. The oily frictions may be disregarded when we can attain the luxury of clean linen. Notwithstanding the numerous authorities referred to, we have not yet found a single clergyman who has excelled as a practical physician.

ART. 30.—*Anatomical Plates of the Bones and Muscles, diminished from Albinus, for the Use of Students in Anatomy, and Artists; accompanied by Explanatory Maps. By Robert Hooper, M. D.* 12mo. 5s. *Boards.* Murray *and* Highley. 1802.

These plates were designed to accompany the last edition of the 'Anatomist's Vade Mecum;' but were not finished in time. Should they be approved, others, representing the situation of the viscera, the course of the nerves, blood-vessels, and absorbents, will follow.

The size will prevent them from being highly useful; but they may give general views, and assist the recollection of ideas, which larger plates or dissection may have communicated. The 'maps' are coloured outlines with references. The execution is neat and peculiarly distinct, in the narrow compass to which the engraver has been confined.

ART. 31.—*Hints for the Improvement of Trusses; intended to render their Use less inconvenient, and to prevent the Necessity of an Understrap. With the Description of a Truss of easy Construction and slight Expence, for the Use of labouring Poor, to whom this little Tract is chiefly addressed. By James Parkinson.* 8vo. 9d. Symonds. 1802.

We truly wish well to this very benevolent design, and think our author's improvements merit particular attention. They render the truss peculiarly easy and convenient.

EDUCATION.

ART. 32.—*The Dog of Knowledge; or, Memoirs of Bob, the Spotted Terrier: supposed to be written by Himself. By the Author of Dick the little Poney.* 12mo. 2s. 6d. *Boards.* Harris.

The life of little Bob, the spotted terrier, comprises a series of ad-

ventures of no trifling nature. Many an animal of our own species, whose history has been published through the partiality of his friends, has not afforded a biography of half Bob's importance.

ART. 33.—*A Father's Instructions; adapted to different Periods of Life, from Youth to Maturity; and designed to promote the Love of Virtue; a Taste for Knowledge; and attentive Observation of the Works of Nature: by Thomas Percival, M. D. &c. Part the Third.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

We always contemplate with a tender regret the last words of a benevolent author; and we greatly fear that these *will* be the last. The same benevolence, the same affectionate regards, the same rational and fervent piety, pervade the present instructions, which formerly commanded our esteem and commendation. We need not enlarge further on this little work, which particularly merits the attention of our younger friends; nor would we mutilate any part by an extract. If we were to 'hint a fault,' it would be with respect to the maxims. They are sometimes so gravely 'ironical,' as to be mistaken for real instruction.

ART. 34.—*The Arts of Life: 1. Of providing Food, 2. Of providing Cloathing, 3. Of providing Shelter: described in a Series of Letters. For the Instruction of young Persons: by the Author of Evenings at Home.* 12mo. 2s. Johnson. 1802.

This is an instructive and entertaining little volume for children of a middle age.

ALGEBRA.

ART. 35.—*Geometrical Propositions demonstrated after the Manner of the Ancients. Translated from the Latin of the late Dr. Stewart.* Glendinning.

This is the title-page to a part only of the volume in which these propositions are contained; and it is the beginning of a series of tracts on mathematical subjects, published by professor Leybourn, of the royal military-college in Buckinghamshire. The propositions are followed by Playfair's Origin and Investigation of Porisms; Wallace's Geometrical Porisms; Hamilton's Essay on the Principles of Mechanics; Landen On the Mechanic Powers, as far as relates to Equilibriums; Hellin's Force of oscillating Bodies on their centres of Suspension; Ivory's Rectification of the Ellipsis; Herschell On the Nature of the Sun and fixed Stars; Rumford On Heat by Friction and its weight; Gough On the Variety of Voices; Swayne on Glauber's Salt; Collier on Iron and Steel; Tennant On the Use of Lime in Agriculture. All these are tracts of acknowledged merit, and deserving the attention of mathematicians and philosophers.

ART. 36.—*A Synopsis of Data for the Construction of Triangles. By Thomas Leybourn, Editor of the Mathematical and Philosophical Repository and Review.* Glendinning. 1802.

The editor has collected a very great variety of data, with the intention of publishing the best solutions that may be transmitted to him. The design is very laudable; and if he is well assisted in a

work of such immense labour, it will be a great acquisition to the mathematical world.

POETRY.

ART. 37.—*The Iliad and Odyssey of Homer, translated into English blank Verse by the late William Cowper, Esq. The Second Edition. With copious Alterations and Notes. Prepared for the Press by the Translator; and now published with a Preface by his Kinsman, J. Johnson, LL.B. &c.* 4 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 1*l.* 12*s.* *Boards.* Johnson. 1802.

The first edition of this performance was considered with some attention, in the fourth volume of our New Arrangement, pp. 241, 361, 560. Its beauties and defects were pointed out with no sparing hand; and, with some degree of reluctance, we were obliged to acknowledge that the latter preponderated. Of the numerous instances adduced of defective passages, we are pleased to observe, that but few remain in the present publication. We trace some alteration, indeed, in almost every page—particularly in the Odyssey—and almost always for the better. The performance, it must be allowed, was susceptible of much improvement; and this it has acquired by means of a lucky circumstance, or no less than a *providential interference*, according to the editor's opinion.

Mr. Cowper, who had long laboured under an unhappy depression of spirits, was roused from his lethargic melancholy by the sight of Wakefield's edition of Pope's Homer, designedly placed in his way by the editor; and in which the propriety of some passages in his translation were applauded, and others questioned. This again recalled his former favourite employment, and stimulated his mental powers; and he accordingly pursued his task of revisal and correction with assiduity and pleasure. Various interruptions, indeed, occurred; but it was finally completed, and left for publication, by the translator.

That the uncomfortable sensations which harassed the mind of so worthy a man were, by these means, diverted and relieved, yields us unfeigned satisfaction. As admirers, however, of his good sense, taste, and poetical abilities, we cannot but repeat the regret with which we concluded our former critique (vol. IV. p. 569)—that the time dedicated to Homer had not been given to original composition.

ART. 38.—*Pitt and his Statue; an Epistle to the Subscribers. Also, Lord B—— and his Motions, &c. &c. By Peter Pindar, Esq.* 4*to.* 2*s.* 6*d.* Walker. 1802.

It is not our present object to examine the propriety of erecting a statue to Mr. Pitt, during his life. It might, perhaps, have been better delayed till the real merits of the ex-minister had been more clearly ascertained, as well as his actual share in the late conduct of government. As may be supposed, the subject is seised as the vehicle of ridicule and satire; and, without interfering in the propriety of the proposal, we may say it is a 'lucky hit.' With respect to the lines in which the satire is couched—*sunt bona—sunt mala plura.* Wit is supplied by gross invectives, and humour by the most indelicate, the most illiberal, allusions. Mr. Pitt would, probably, rather

be the subject of these invectives, than the author of them; and, could nothing more persuasive be advanced against the plan, every good man would acquiesce in it. We have said, however, *sunt bona*. Some of these we meaned to have selected; but, on a second revisal, cannot find a single stanza with which we would sully our pages.

ART. 39.—*The Middlesex Election; or, Poetical Epistles, in the Devonshire Dialect. By Mr. Joseph Budge, in London, to Lord Rolle, at Weymouth. Edited by Peter Pindar, Esq.* 4*to.* 2*s.* 6*d.* Walker. 1802.

This is said to be the production of Mr. Budge, 'the actual 'squire, and attendant, and mentor of my lord Rolle.' It may be so; but we believe it would be difficult to find a Devonshire farmer who could not write at least more naturally in his own dialect. What is not prose, according to Molière, is verse; and whatever is not legitimate English, according to this publication, is supposed to be Devonian. It is 'a patched and pyebald' dialect, to which every province seems to have contributed. The substance is the hackneyed subject of the Middlesex election, without one particle of wit or humour. There is not a line that we are tempted to transcribe.

ART. 40.—*The Scum Uppermost when the Middlesex Porridge-Pot boils over!! an heroic Election Ballad: with explanatory Notes. Accompanied with an admonitory Nod to a blind Horse,* 4*to.* 2*s.* No Bookseller's Name. 1802.

A poetical attack on sir Francis Burdett and his political friends, from the pen—if report say true—of the author of Salmagundi, and Bubble and Squeak; and who, from the titles of his works, appears to be *clerk* of the *kitchen* to the Muses. On the present ballad we cannot bestow much approbation; nor, perhaps, does the author expect it: the subject is handled with the coarsest species of invective, and in a manner beneath his talents. It may serve the temporary purpose of a party, but can add nothing to legitimate fame.

ART. 41.—*The Converts: a moral Tale. Recommending the Practice of Humanity, the Utility of Sunday-Schools, and a due Observance of the Lord's Day. By J. Bisset, Museum, Birmingham.* 8*vo.* 6*d.* No Publisher's Name.

No design can be more laudable than that which produced the publication of this little book; no execution can be worse than the poetry contained in it. The only particle of praise we can offer, is that of having meant well.

ART. 42.—*The Lapse of Time, a Poem for the New Year. By Rebecca Edridge.* 4*to.* 1*s.* Robson. 1803.

It is always matter of sorrow to us, when we cannot bestow commendation on the offspring of the female Muse; for, although grown grey in the service of literature, we have not yet forgotten that it is the duty of man to act *politely*—as the phrase is—to the ladies. But how shall we offer any thing in favour of such lines as the following, with which Mrs. Edridge opens her poem? We can only promise, that, if she write a better *copy of verses* against the conclusion of the present year, we will readily speak better of them.

'Upon the Tempest's wing, riding sublime,
Time presses on!—among past ages mixt,
No more to us the year which yesterday
Fulfill'd, than that which first beheld the morn
When yon resplendent orb assum'd on high
His radiant sphere, and this our pendant globe
From chaos call'd, burst into creation.' P. 3.

ART. 43.—*A Poetical Sketch.* 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons. 1802.

'The author of the following pages may perhaps appear to some to incur the imputation of vanity, when he asserts, that no solicitation of friends was the motive of the present publication—Literary ambition alone has produced, what will probably in a little time be consigned to dust and cobwebs—This is the first essay of youth and inexperience; and the author derives some degree of satisfaction from having employed a few vacant hours, in a composition, which although it may not insure one sprig of laurel, may plead some innocent efforts of fancy which were in unison with the emotions of his heart—The work itself is a trifle; censure will probably usher it into the world of literature, and the seal of oblivion may very soon be stamped upon it—But the author aspires not to the higher regions of Parnassus, and the flowerets which he has scattered in the lap of the community, have been gathered at the bottom of the hill.' P. i.

It is the easiest thing in the world to deceive ourselves, with respect to the extent of our acquisitions, and the value of our own abilities. The writer of this little poem supposes, as we see, that he has picked his flowers at the foot of Parnassus, instead of which he has plucked them from the garlands of those who occasionally culled them on its top. There is hardly one thought in this Poetical Sketch, for which we could not turn elsewhere, in an instant. We do not mean, however, by this remark, to discourage our youthful poet; for his borrowed images are often prettily combined; and, besides, much greater men than himself have found it difficult to separate between their own inventions and those of others. Time and application are the principal improvers of juvenile writers, of all descriptions. If the poet before us submit patiently to their discipline, we see no reason why 'censures should usher' his future works 'into the world of literature.' The following is a fair specimen of his present merit:

'Along the green, the hamlet's festive day
Made toil relax, and poverty look gay:
There, as at blush of morn, the pealing bells
Charm'd the sweet echoes of responsive dells:
The sun-burn'd Gypsey, and her tawny train
Forsook the tented shed, beside the lane;
Oft, have I mark'd the paltry rag of red
Half-flung in careless mood across her head:
Oft, the short smutted tube, and vapouring smoke
That from her lips, in quick succession, broke;
And as her jet-black locks, her keen dark eyes
Flash'd on credulity, and mark'd the prize:

Intent she gaz'd upon the lines of fate,
And cloth'd the poor man in the dress of state,
Oft, in pretended divination, bold
She spread the palm, and promis'd heaps of gold:
Oft 'mid the gaping ring, her magic power
Reveal'd to village-maids the bridal hour;
One silver-piece could fix their future doom,
This, gain'd a marriage: less than this, a tomb.' P. 4.

DRAMA.

ART. 44.—*The Merchant of Guadaloupe: a Play, in three Acts. As it was performed at the Theatre-Royal, Margate, on Tuesday, the 5th of October*, 1802. *From the French of Mercier. By John Wallace, Esq.* 8*vo.* 2*s.* Carpenter. 1802.

Mr. Wallace feels himself a little more angry than, perhaps, is necessary, at some animadversions that have been made upon the drama which he has translated. He should have considered that it is not in the power of a newspaper-editor to investigate every fact minutely which finds its way into his diary. He could not travel to Margate for information, while his journal was working off. The remark was, most likely, sent to the office for insertion, and there received as true. It would have been wise in the translator to have buried it in silence, contenting himself with the reflexion of Scripture—'an enemy hath done this.' As the piece is now in print, it becomes our duty to deliver an additional opinion upon it, by premising, that, whatever be its praise or blame, it belongs, almost exclusively, to Mercier, and in but a very small degree to Mr. Wallace, his translator. The characters, then, are few, the plot simple, and the diction sentimental; consequently it will please less on the stage, than in the closet: there is nothing in it that can fail to do honour to the heart of the author; yet there is nothing in it that will render it a favourite of the public.

ART. 45.—*Juvenile Friendship; or the Holidays: a Drama, in three Acts. To which is subjoined The arrogant Boy: a dramatick After-Piece, in Verse. Intended for the Representation of Children.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Hatchard. 1802.

As an innocent amusement for children, we may speak of 'Juvenile Friendship;' but we can afford it no literary praise. A young lady of nineteen, and a lad of seventeen, are not proper associates in acting with children of eight and nine:—Caroline and Augustus must have sighed for more important characters.

ART. 46.—*Il Bondocani, or, The Caliph Robber: a Comic Opera, in three Acts. Performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By Thomas Dibdin.* 8*vo.* 1*s.* 6*d.* Longman *and* Rees.

A bankrupt merchant bidding his daughter unveil, that a stranger may look on her, to see if he should like her for his wife, is too perfectly European to suffer us to fancy ourselves for a moment in Bag-

'A;' and yet this little piece is so fairly on a par with many of our other farces, that it would hardly be kind to find fault with it. We have not felt displeased in reading it; yet we can give no reason why it should have pleased us. We can only say, with—

'*Chebib*. What is thy name?
'*Haroun*. Il Bondocani.
'*Chebib*. 'Tis like thyself, a strange one.' P. 16.

NOVELS, &c.

ART. 47. — *Independence. A Novel. By Gabrielli, Author of the Mysterious Husband, &c. 4 Vols. 12mo. 16s. Boards.* Lane *and* Newman. 1802.

The principal circumstance in this novel is, that the hero acts, for a series of years, the mountebank, and then turns out to be a peer. The performance, in general, deserves as much praise as is due to most works of this nature; for the narrative is not without interest, though at times a little too prolix. If we were to find any fault, it would be, that Egbert Irwan had not been left as he was found; for he certainly is a superior genius, as a Flemish rope-dancer: but there is nothing worth commending about him, as a British marquis.

ART. 48. — *The Orphans of Llangloed. A modern Tale. By the Author of Lusignan. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards.* Lane *and* Newman. 1802.

These volumes will not be an unwelcome present to the circulating library: the style is sprightly, and the events pleasing. Mr. O'Shallaghan's bulls are perhaps sown too thickly; but the easy language in which they are delivered, will convince the reader that the author is perfectly at home in what is supposed to be the character of an Irish fortune-hunter.—We shall present him with a small quotation.

'Countess of Glendower to Mrs. Middleton.

'Oh my dear, my honoured friend! have you not suffered by the knowledge of my perilous situation? You heard of my unaccountable disappearance from West Cliff; but you know nothing of the dangers, the horrors I have encountered.

'After our ball, lady Callenberg requested I would lead the way to the carriage. That detested wretch O'Shallaghan advanced hastily, and seized my hand: he said the coach was not at the door, but only a few yards off. Not doubting the truth, I advanced with him. He handed me into a chaise, saying he supposed it was of no consequence which carriage I went in. I certainly saw lord Callenberg's livery: one of the servants must have been in the plot. O'Shallaghan cried —"Drive on," as he hastily jumped in after me; and, before I could even make an exclamation of surprise, his handkerchief was crammed into my mouth, so that I was almost suffocated.

'When we got out of the town, he put his head out of the window; and I heard a voice say—"It's all safe, sir."

"That is well," said he: "and now, honey, you may breathe then; I would not, by Jasus, hurt your sweet face, not for the world!

—only because women are apt to talk, d'ye see, and I wanted you to be kept quiet."

"For heaven's sake, sir!" said I, "what can your intention be?"

"Only a trip to the North, honey," replied he; "and I'll make you as good a husband as ever an Irishman did: and I've got fifteen hundred a year, and a park in the county of Tipperary."

"You cannot imagine, Mr. O'Shallaghan," said I, "that I can ever consent to be your wife?"

"Oh, I have got your consent!" replied he; "and I have got you, and that's better, ducky; and if any body should overtake us, I can kill half a dozen in a trice. There's myself and two footmen, that's two—and the postillion, three: I thought there were four of us, but I believe the fourth must have staid behind. But we're enough to manage six; and if they should happen to kill us, I'd be revenged, for they'd be hanged for murder: and besides, my sweet creature, you would not wish me harm, for I love you dearly—and I'll make you a good husband, I tell you, and twenty per cent. of your money, too!" Vol. ii. p. 119.

ART. 49.—*The Reprobate. A Novel. Translated by the Author of The Wife and the Mistress, &c. The original by Augustus la Fontaine. 2 Vols. 12mo. 8s. Boards.* Lane *and* Newman. 1802.

A powerful warning is held out, in these volumes, to all youthful readers, not to let even the most innocent passion get the better of their reason and their sense of duty. More than sixteen years of the life of Suzette Engleman are spent in misery, because she yielded to the voice of love, unsanctioned by, and unknown to, her friends. No less powerful an admonition is also here conveyed to parents in the fate of Valdenburg. That hapless young man drags on the best part of his existence in sorrow and despair, not from any demerits of his own, but from a capricious dislike to his person, entertained by the authors of his existence. The other characters in the work are a pleasing relief to these circumstances of sorrow, particularly the innocent hobby-horses of the two Englemans. On the whole, the performance is such a one as we can speak of with considerable satisfaction.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

ART. 50.—*A Companion to the Almanack, containing an Explanation of the Saints' Days and Holidays, with biographical Sketches of the Persons, and historical Accounts of the Events, on which the Festivals are founded. To which is prefixed an Introduction, explaining the chronological and astronomical Terms, and the general Contents of modern Almanacks; with a brief Enquiry into their Origin. By John Audley. 12mo. 1s. 6d.* Mawman.

To a certain class of readers, this tract may afford some information; but, to render it generally useful, the author should have abridged it into a size convenient to bind with almanacks, which he might have done by omitting some prolix accounts of saints, and particularly of events well known to the public in general. His narratives

and lives are, however, entertaining, and, we must add, impartial—for the author informs us that he is a *dissenter!*

ART. 51.—*Remarks on modern female Manners, as distinguished by Indifference to Character, and Indecency of Dress; extracted chiefly from 'Reflections political and moral at the Conclusion of the War, by John Bowles, Esq.'* 8*vo.* 6*d.* Rivingtons. 1802.

This pamphlet has had an extensive circulation, and amply deserves it. The author bestows his censure on the manners of the fashionable female world with equal freedom and justice, and evinces the bold spirit of a moralist, by a direct attack on licentiousness in the *highest* situations. There appears an egregious error, however, in a quotation given in pp. 10, 11, which, if it cannot be amended, had better be omitted. The royal pair, who exhibit 'a pattern of conjugal bliss,' certainly 'met *before* the formation of their sacred engagement.' The *remainder*, we think, might as well be passed over, in considering this subject.

ART. 52.—*Guide in a Tour to the Watering Places and their Environs, in the South East of Devon.* 12*mo.* 3*s.* 6*d.* Trewmans, Exeter.

We think we perceive an error in the title; for, if our recollection do not deceive us, the places, and the country, which are the author's object, lie on the *west* of the Exe: this, however, is of little importance. Several bathing-places are well described; and—what adds to the value of the work—the picturesque scenes in the neighbourhood, which the visitor may reach in a ride or a walk of no great extent, are carefully pointed out. We may expect a little of the exaggeration which usually accompanies a description of our native scenes; nor is the author always free from the cant of the picturesque tourist. These errors, however, if they exist—for we can scarcely recall scenes, which it is so long since we visited—are not glaring or offensive; and we think the reader may, in general, depend on these descriptions, as faithful and natural.

The etchings are very indifferently executed. We may express a hope, that, since the author has wrote his title-page, his thoughts were occupied in planning 'A Guide in a Tour on the South *East*.' Such a work we should be well pleased to see, from an observer so acute and ingenious as Mr. Hyatt.

ART. 53.—*Remarks on the French General Reynier's Narrative of the Campaign in Egypt. By an Officer employed in that Country.* 8*vo.* 2*s.* Cadell *and* Davies. 1802.

The Remarks before us are candid and dispassionate. General Reynier is convicted of misrepresentation, from even his own statements, and the most authentic accounts; and his narrative is followed very closely. We have already enlarged sufficiently on this subject in our last volume; and shall only add, as a specimen of the author's manner, his refutation of M. Reynier's statement of a slight affair which happened near Alexandria, almost in sight of both armies: it was not noticed in our former articles.

'Most fortunately for the credit of this advanced corps, it is a fact, notorious to the whole English army, (and to most of the French too,) that it consisted entirely of the 30th regiment, calculated in M. Reynier's own statement, on its arrival in the country, at 300 men, and by this time, reduced within that number. Not an Englishman of any other description was within reach of the scene of this little affair, and how the number of the enemy attacking them is diminished, when stated at 400 men, may be easily conjectured, when four companies of grenadiers, and a whole battalion of the 75th demi-brigade, are acknowledged to have formed this detachment. It amounted, in reality, to nearly 700. The object of this detachment was solely to dispossess the advanced corps, *viz.* the 30th regiment, of the ground it occupied, thereby to impede the besiegers in their approaches towards the place. These troops could no more be injured by any fire from the English army, than the 30th could be affected by a fire from the French. They were equally without the reach of musketry from either party, and had the business wholly to themselves. 'Tis true, that these troops ascended the hill, with "the step of a charge," but that "they drove in the English advanced corps," is not quite so clear, for this advanced corps, was the only force from which a shot was fired on them. The 30th regiment, in short, received their charge, completely put them to the rout, killed a great proportion of them, drove them down the hill much faster than they ascended, and followed them a considerable part of the way towards their own works. This is a truth, known to every individual of the Egyptian army, and equally well known to M. Reynier himself, to whom, if this should ever fall in his way, it will not prove of the smallest information.' P. 43.

ART. 54.—*A Letter to the Proprietors of East India Stock, respecting the present Situation of the Company's Affairs both abroad and at home; in Answer to the Statements given in the latter Part of the third Report of the Special Committee of the Court of Directors respecting private Trade, dated the 25th of March*, 1802. 8*vo.* 3*s.* Hatchard. 1802.

Singularly opposite are the opinions respecting the real state of the Company's finances, and the mode by which their trade should be conducted. A fugitive pamphlet has not, however, a sufficient claim on us, to call for a minute investigation of the subject. The author reasons with apparent candour and propriety, and seems to be sufficiently acquainted with his subject; but, were we to notice his work particularly, we could point out the sources of some errors which would greatly alter the result of his calculations.